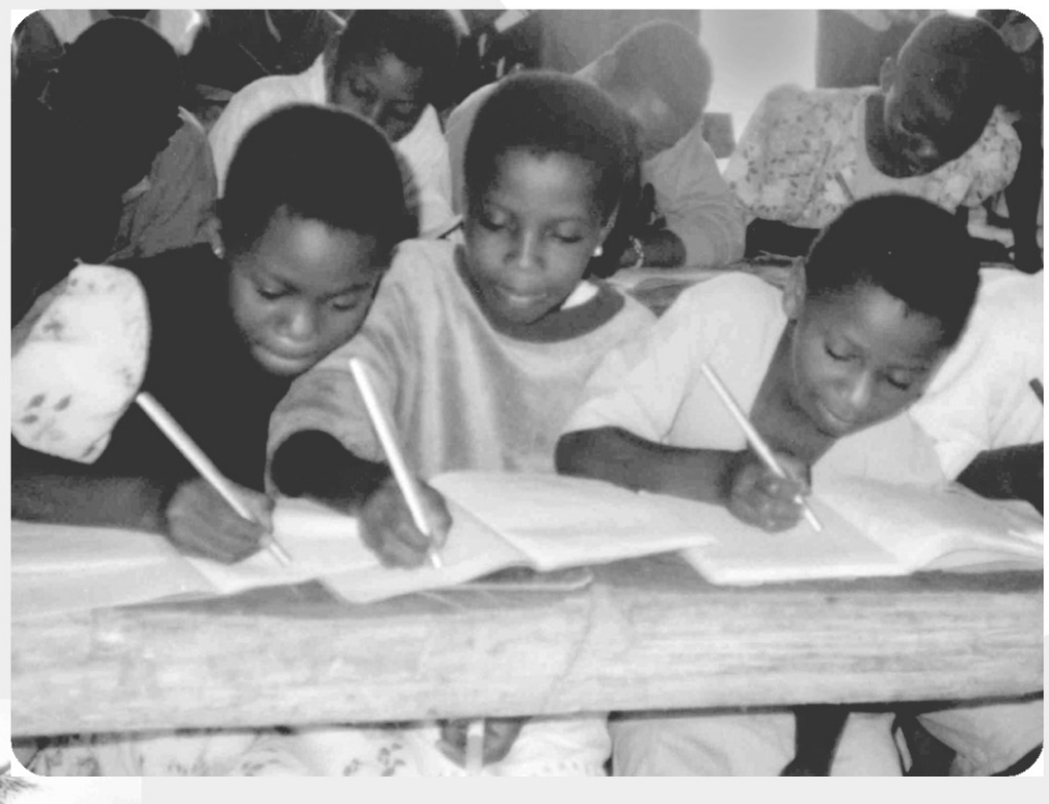

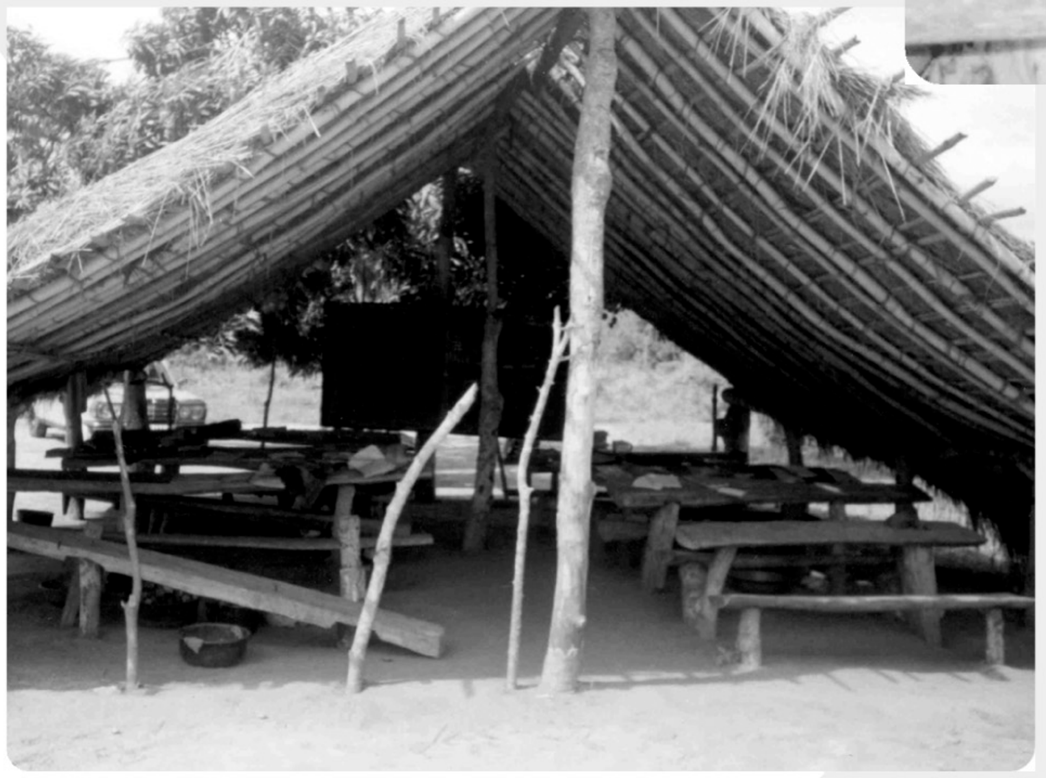

A Literature Review of Community Schools in Africa

USAID
United States Agency for International Development,
Bureau for Africa, Office of Sustainable Development

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Support for Analysis and Research in Africa (SARA) Project
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Most of all our thoughts go to the thousands of underprivileged African teachers and parents whose names we do not know but who relentlessly invest their meager resources, their community spirit and their hopes into the education of their children.

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Executive Summary

Community schools are currently an important part of the educational landscape in sub-Saharan Africa and are frequently held up as successful educational interventions in developing countries trying to reach universal access to basic education and improve education quality. Though community schooling has long been a practice in many countries, the idea of alternative education as a development strategy is relatively new and is often seen as a response to failing public education systems. However, information on community schools in Africa is lacking. A few evaluations and even fewer syntheses of information on community schools exist. This paper is a review of community schools in sub-Saharan Africa, covering as many models and donors as possible. Countries covered are Benin, Burkina Faso, Chad, Ethiopia, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Somalia, South Sudan, Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, and Zambia.

While communities and churches started and managed schools during the colonial period in Anglophone Africa, the *écoles spontanées* in Chad are one of the best-known, and older, examples of schools entirely created and financed by communities. Many other models are supported by international and local donors and NGOs, and some have governmental partners. A definition of community schools is difficult and not often attempted in program literature. For this review, "community-based school management" was the common element of the programs that we surveyed. A high level of community involvement in school management was the key to inclusion. Our second criterion for community schools (to distinguish them from nonformal education) was a connection to the public primary education system.

A large range of rationales exist for community schools in Africa. They increase access to education where the government does not have the resources to do so and are often seen as more relevant to local development needs than public schools. Many models attempt to make programs more attractive to children by supporting interactive and student-centered teaching methods. Community schools are seen as cost-effective (comparable or even better instructional services for less money) and community participation is expected to improve educational quality and increase student achievement. Another goal of community schools focuses on improving governance, developing local democratic organizations such as school management committees. School personnel become accountable to communities when communities manage schools. Finally, community schools are seen as one way to implement educational decentralization.

Currently two main community school models exist: creating new, community-managed schools, or strengthening community management to revitalize existing public schools. For newly-created schools, there are two possibilities—those that resemble public schools (in curriculum, textbooks, schedule, exams, teachers, teaching styles, supervision, etc.) and those that function as an alternative system in all or any of these areas. Of the programs reviewed by this paper, there were almost an equal number of the two approaches.

Government relationships to community schools vary from country to country. Zambia is distinguished by the development of a nongovernmental community schools secretariat that works with the Ministry to accreditate its 700 community schools. In Mali, 10 percent of primary children are enrolled in community schools that increasingly resemble public primary schools. Transforming community schools into those administered by local communes (local

government offices) and determining the extent to which they will receive communal funding is seen as part of the educational decentralization process. Community schools in Togo, called *écoles d'initiative locale* (EDIL), make up about 20 percent of all primary schools, but were only recently officially noticed and counted. The *écoles communautaires de base* (ECB) in Senegal are considered nonformal education but those who graduate from ECBs are allowed to pass into the public school system. Many community schools exist in Ethiopia and local officials are increasingly involved in community school programs, where they have not been in the past. *Ecoles spontanées* in Chad are created and financed by village communities to make up for the absence of public schools. The government is not in a financial position to aid these schools and the Ministry of Education does not encourage their proliferation because of their poor quality teaching.

The strengths or successes of community schools, as described in the literature, are many. It should be kept in mind that the strengths listed do not apply to all programs reviewed. Strengths are:

- increased demand for education
- increased access and enrollment
- improvements in gender equity
- improved retention, particularly of girls
- increased quality of education
- improved student performance
- good results with untrained teachers
- new methods of teaching and learning
- improved attendance and promptness for both teachers and students
- improved infrastructure
- increased government and outside support (for existing schools)
- increased government-community relations and partnerships
- effective parents' associations or PTAs
- communities more involved in education
- increased parental participation
- increased relevance of schools to local needs
- impacts on national education systems and education reform.

The challenges for community schools discussed in the literature mirror, in many ways, their strengths, thus revealing that it is not simply the innovation of the community school that improves education but a whole range of factors. Challenges discussed are:

- poor student performance
- poor teacher qualifications
- lack of recognition for unofficial teacher training
- poor quality of education
- lack of support and supervision for teachers
- lack of teachers
- lack of local resources
- lack of community financing
- lack of government support

- not reaching gender equity goals
- low enrollments, dropout, and repetition
- poor infrastructure and lack of textbooks and materials
- lack of sustainability (financial, managerial)
- lack of places for community school students to continue and lack of certification
- hostile attitudes toward and lack of information about community schools
- lack of legislation regarding community schools
- lack of contact with other schools for academic or extra-curricular activities
- lack of community school students continuing their education in public schools.

The costs of community schools are difficult to measure precisely and to compare across models or countries. While the general assumption is that community schools cost less than public schools, those few who studied the question carefully often found this not to be the case. While the cost of education is lower for governments in many cases, actual costs per pupil are the same as those for public school students or even higher in some cases, and are being covered by NGOs and communities. NGOs or outside resources seem important to the overall success of community school programs. While divesting fiscal and administrative responsibility for a school to the local community is attractive, serious equity considerations arise in expecting poor people to pay for education. Overall, it seems clear that communities are overtaxed financially. In the future, community schools cannot be self-funded and self-reliant entities. Eventually, to become sustainable, they will need to obtain government resources.

Critical factors for the future of community schools include:
- recognizing community schools legally and integrating them into the national education system
- governments paying for teacher salaries, teacher training, improving teachers' working conditions, and professionalizing community school teachers
- ensuring that local and central government agencies monitor and support community school teachers
- governments providing textbooks and teaching materials
- governments paying a portion of construction costs
- local government becoming responsible for community schools
- upholding community management of schools
- identifying and supporting local community leaders
- supporting capacity building for parent committees and committee federations
- encouraging continued NGO involvement in education
- developing close relationships with public schools
- paying school fees as a collectivity rather than having parents pay for each student
- continuing to offer alternative education, including practical subjects in the curriculum
- forming regional networks of exchange.

It is clear that government help is needed for community schools to survive, but the risk is that government involvement will negatively influence the process and lose the community dynamic of the alternative system. The role of the government in community school programs is still not

clear and warrants further study. The roles of other partners, such as decentralized local government, civil society, and the private sector, also need to be clarified.

1. Introduction

The 1990 Education for All meeting in Jomtien provided an expanded vision of basic education and called for strengthening partnerships with civil society organizations, local communities, and nongovernmental organizations (NGOs) in providing education. While many references to community schools were made in discussions about equitable access to education, no one at that meeting spoke of developing a community school model within national educational systems (World Bank 2000). Ten years later, in 2000, the Dakar Framework for Action developed at the World Education Forum reaffirmed the goals of reaching "universal access to learning," "broadening the means and scope of basic education," and "strengthening partnerships" between schools and communities. Away from the conference resolutions, schools and communities were already organizing themselves to deliver education services to their children. In the last ten years community schools have become an important part of the educational landscape in sub-Saharan Africa. They are frequently held up as successful educational interventions as they provide wider access to education services and rally communities around the school to support teaching and learning. We know that thousands of community schools now exist in Africa, though we don't have an exact count. Community schooling has long been a practice in many countries, but the idea of alternative education as a development strategy is relatively new and can be explained by a variety of factors.

Despite their currency in international education, there hasn't been a census of community school programs in sub-Saharan Africa that we know of. This review is an attempt to look at the definitions of community schools in Africa, to understand the different community school models being implemented, and to learn what is known, from current programs, of the strengths and weaknesses of community schools. We have only looked at primary education, though examples of community secondary schools exist (Rugh and Bossert 1998). In addition, we have summarized the specific programs on which we were able to gather information and have included these summaries in a table format at the end of this report. This review does not attempt to answer the question of whether or not community schools are a successful educational innovation or to evaluate the differing models described.

While cases of so-called "spontaneous" community schools exist, a great number of community schools in Africa are, in fact, supported by international and local donors and NGOs. Most of the information in this review comes from published and unpublished program literature and interviews with program staff. Countries covered are Benin, Burkina Faso, Chad, Ethiopia, Gambia, Ghana, Guinea, Kenya, Malawi, Mali, Somalia, South Sudan, Tanzania, Togo, Uganda, and Zambia. While we collected and used everything available to us, inherent biases emerge in what we were able to gather. This review focuses heavily on US-based, NGO- and USAID-funded programs. We know of many programs not summarized here; the organizations we contacted lacked information—these include Aide et Action, many ActionAid programs, the Aga Khan Educational Foundation programs in East Africa, schools sponsored by churches or religious organizations, those supported by local NGOs, and many community schools without any external support. To the extent possible, each program summary was reviewed by program staff. As community schools grow rapidly, reports cannot always capture the trend fast enough; therefore, while the data were collected in 2001, some may already be outdated.

2. Defining community schools

In much of Anglophone Africa during the colonial period, schools were started and run by communities and churches. With the coming of independence, these schools were taken over by the government and became the basis of the public school system. Community schools, therefore, have a long history in parts of Africa. The *écoles spontanées* in Chad are one of the best-known, and older, African examples of primary schools entirely created and financed by communities in the post-colonial period. Many other models, that we will call community schools in this review, have NGOs, religious organizations, or even governments as partners. A definition of community schools is difficult and not often attempted in program literature.

We must note first of all that community participation in education is not a focus of the current review.[1] Community participation can be seen, however, as the defining aspect of community schools, but the term covers a wide range of activities. Project initiators use a range of modes to involve communities: from simply "telling" (giving information or directions) all the way to "empowering" and "emboldening" (communities given skill and permission to support the innovation or encouraged to take their own initiatives in support of the program) (Barnett 1995, cited in Rugh and Bossert 1998). A significant difference also exists between providing labor for building and having responsibility for school management, though both are forms of community participation.

Another definition of community schools, including a high level of local participation, specifies community roles more clearly. Communities have significant responsibilities in "creating, constructing, financing, and managing the school, recruiting and paying teachers, and procuring school materials" (Tietjen 1999, p. 1). They differ from government schools in their funding sources, governance, management structure, organization, and, often, curricula.

In Zambia, a community school is a "community-based, owned, and managed, learning institution that meets the basic/primary education needs of pupils, who for a number of reasons cannot enter government schools" (ZCSS n.d., 1). A committee of community representatives manage and organize these schools, which can be locally or externally initiated. Community schools target orphans, underprivileged children, and girls.

The target populations are also part of the defining characteristics of CARE's community schools world-wide. While CARE's framework gives a number of elements that distinguish community schools, it notes that not all community schools have these elements. Community schools provide educational opportunities for underserved groups (rural poor, ethnic minorities, girls) at a sustainable cost. They are located within communities that don't have easy access to public schools. Management of the schools involves a partnership among private organizations, communities, and government. Teachers are recruited, trained, and supported from the local area. Schools use a locally-relevant, child-centered curriculum and pedagogy while covering the basic knowledge and skills required by the formal education system, so that successful pupils can continue in government schools. Community schools often provide education where families have no alternative (Hartwell and Pittman 1999).

[1] We have included, however, several papers on community participation that provided case studies of community schools.

One recent attempt to capture models of community involvement in education has identified three: traditional community-based education, government-provided education, and the collaborative model. The latter, in which the community supports government provision of education, has been triggered by governments' lack of resources and mismanagement, proving they cannot deliver adequate educational services to the community in many African countries (Williams, cited by Uemura 1999).

World Education community schools in Mali are defined as a cost-sharing arrangement with government (Welmond 2000a). Usually the community builds schools and hires teachers and the Ministry of Education provides supervision. Generally the school belongs to the community but is included in the national education system.

For this review, "community-based school management" was the common element of the programs that we surveyed. A high level of community involvement in school management was the key to inclusion. Our second criterion for community schools (to distinguish them from nonformal education) was a connection to the public education sector. The schools in this review are either public schools, recognized as part of the formal education system (private or community schools), or feeder schools that prepare students to transfer into the public system after completing the program.

3. Rationales for community schools in Africa

Increasing access

Increased access, particularly for children from neglected populations (rural areas, ethnic minorities, girls), is the main reason for creating community schools. The issue of access is linked to the lack of government resources. One strategy to achieve Universal Basic Education (UBE) is expecting local participation to be an integral part of basic education. Governments seek financial contributions from communities to complement their own investments in providing primary education. While it remains the responsibility of national governments to guarantee education, the current reality of most African countries is such that the only hope for achieving UBE is for communities to contribute to the cost and management of schooling. Local communities in Chad, facing a lack of government-provided primary education during that country's civil war, created, financed, and managed schools completely independently to meet educational demand (Muskin 1997). Today, CARE generally creates community schools to increase access to education for children who would otherwise have no access (Hartwell and Pittman 1999).

Relevance to local needs

Though community schools differ from country to country, they are usually based on the same principle: more relevant to the wants and needs of the community than government schools, better integrated into the environment (mostly rural), and teaching practical subjects as well as theory (World Bank Africa Regional Office 2000). In six case studies, most community school models attempted to make programs more attractive to children by relating learning to daily life, drawing on local examples and skill resources, using interactive and student-centered teaching methods, and developing opportunities for parents to become more involved in the school (Rugh and Bossert 1998).

Save the Children (1997) in Mali looked at both the issues of access and locally-relevant schooling when starting their village-based schools in the early 1990s. The schools were adapted to the local environment, had an abridged curriculum, and a flexible schedule and calendar, and used national languages as the medium of instruction. Communities identified the skills to be acquired and children remained in the village after graduation. It is interesting to note that these objectives have changed over time. Parents have determined that their children should be able to continue past the sixth grade in public schools rather than complete an education that prepares students to remain in their local environment. The schools have thus changed, becoming much more like traditional schools with a focus on teaching French so students can graduate and move into government schools (Cissé et al. 2000; Save the Children/USA 2001a).

Cost-effectiveness

Education stakeholders want to use limited resources effectively and efficiently to solve problems and provide quality education for children (Uemura 1999). Community schools are thought to have three advantages over conventional schools: have potential for expanding access to more students and neglected populations; are more responsive to the local demand for

education (decide structure, language, who teachers are, curriculum, etc., plus give better learning outcomes); and are cost-effective with comparable or better instructional services for less money (Tietjen 1999). In 1994, for example, it cost US $36 student/year to educate a child at World Education's community schools in Mali versus $42 student/year for government schools. The issue of cost is once again related to the question of government resources for education. According to Save the Children/USA (2001a), each community has the human and financial resources necessary to begin educating its children and the cost of education can be considerably reduced without reducing quality.

Improving quality and increasing student achievement

Community participation in education is a strategy to improve educational access and quality (Uemura 1999). World Learning's community school program in Ethiopia operates under the theory that if communities can be mobilized around their local schools and if school committees compete for and obtain funding for school development, then educational quality will improve and more children will succeed in school (Rowley n.d.a).

U.S. research has shown that parent and community involvement in education has a positive effect on student outcomes. In developing countries, planners and policy makers see the potential of community support in enhancing pupil outcomes. Community support plays a role in increasing outcomes in three ways: (i) adding resources to education efforts; (ii) extending education coverage or increasing local demand for quality education; and (iii) enhancing the implementation of education, its relevance, and the accountability of the education system (Dowd 2001). One critical question, however, is whether or not community participation is important for delivering quality education; technical expertise may be more important than local support (Rugh and Bossert 1998).

Decentralization

Another view is that community schools are a way to implement educational decentralization. Since Jomtien, and confirmed by Dakar, governments and international agencies have been advocating decentralization as a mechanism for improving education provision in developing countries. An alternative approach to educational administration and management has been to entrust management decisions downward in the hierarchy, often to community levels. This has been accompanied by governance reforms promoting the participation of stakeholders in educational management (UNESCO Basic Education Division 2001).

Critics of community participation think that the limited resources should be used to increase the government's capacity to deliver quality education efficiently and effectively. Mobilizing the community to take over the provision of education only postpones the reform of state institutions. The counter argument is that governments may never have the resources to provide universal basic education and that community support must supplement state efforts, particularly for difficult-to-reach populations (Rugh and Bossert 1998).

Governance and accountability

Supporters of community participation in education argue that it is a good idea in itself, beyond achieving educational services and outcomes, as it contributes to the growth of civil society and democratic institutions—integral parts of sustainable development (Rugh and Bossert 1998). But models of community support for education and community participation are distinct (Dowd 2001). Community support models focus on the community-school relationship and the substance of the interactions between community members and school staff. The ultimate outcome of this model is pupil learning. In community participation models, the focus is community groups—including issues of the locus of power, management skills, and the dynamics of decision-making. The ultimate outcome is one of governance. World Education contributes in this second manner to overall development in West Africa through the development of democratic local organizations (*Associations de parents d'élèves* or APEs) that are empowered to represent the interests of parents in the field of education (Welmond 2000b; Devine 2001). Full management of schools by local people is a goal of Save the Children in Mali, in addition to their objective of meeting demand with locally-relevant education (Muskin 1997). School personnel's accountability to parents is also a community school contribution to education.

4. Programs and models

Community school models

We examined two models of community schools: the newly-created, community-owned and managed schools, and the existing government-owned schools receiving community management support. The newly-created, community-owned schools model can be divided into two types: one that adopts the public school system in curriculum, textbooks, schedule, exams, teachers, teaching styles, supervision, etc.; and one that functions as an alternative system in all or any of these areas. The alternative services are viewed as an improvement on the public system, more adapted to the environment, having better or innovative teaching and learning methods, less costly and more flexible, etc. The alternative model also works as a feeder system for the public schools. Working within public schools to increase community management is something that outside organizations do in all the programs studied, while creating new schools, often done with the assistance of NGOs, donors, or religious organizations, is also done by communities on their own. In these latter cases, community schools are more likely to resemble public schools than to offer an alternative program.

Of the programs reviewed by this paper, there were almost an equal number of the two models of community schools. Table 1 summarizes the countries in which programs work with existing public schools, often funded by USAID, and those in which new schools have been created.

Table 1. Community school programs summarized in the paper, by country and type of school

Country	Programs working with existing schools	Programs creating new community schools
Benin	World Education	
Chad		Communities, Community organizations, NGOs
Ethiopia	World Learning, Tigray Development Association	ActionAid
Gambia		ActionAid
Ghana	CARE, Education Development Center, UNICEF	
Guinea	World Education	
Kenya		ActionAid
Malawi	Save the Children	Save the Children
Mali	World Education	World Education, Africare, CARE, GTZ, World Vision, Save the Children/US
Senegal		Communities, Community organizations, NGOs
Somalia	CARE	
South Sudan	CARE	

Country	Programs working with existing schools	Programs creating new community schools
Tanzania	World Bank	ActionAid
Togo		Communities, Community organizations, NGOs
Uganda		Save the Children, ActionAid
Zambia		Communities, Community organizations, NGOs

Most of the discussion here, including community financing, applies to both types of schools, as revitalized community management of schools usually involves financial support. While it appears that communities supporting new schools, rather than existing public schools, might have a larger financial burden, this is not always the case. Parents at newly-created Save the Children schools in Mali paid less than public school parents and non-parent contributions were equal to those of public school communities. Communities with the Community School Alliances project in Ghana raised money for a matching-grant program to support their public schools, including expensive purchases such as school vehicles in some cases (Tietjen 1999; Community School Alliances Project n.d.). The section on strengths of community schools indicates where particular strengths fit one model and not the other. The section on weaknesses of community schools deals almost exclusively with newly-created schools.

NGO roles

Significant differences exist between community schools with external support and those without, most markedly in the available resources. The roles of communities and implementing NGOs differ significantly from school to school and organization to organization. While all the programs rely on school-based management, usually through an *Association des parents d'éleves* (APE), Parent Teacher Association (PTA), or School Management Committee, the financing and the control over finances can look very different. Does the community pay the teacher completely, share the costs with an NGO, have the government pay teacher salaries, or does an NGO pay teacher salaries? What about textbooks, school supplies, teacher housing, construction costs? Do NGO employees or government inspectors provide supervision and support for teachers? Do NGOs focus on management training for the school management committee or APE, give literacy training, or supply facilitators to the village on a regular basis? What is the school infrastructure like and did the community get external help in its construction or renovation? Does the NGO give building materials or supplies directly to the school or do they give grants with which the communities can purchase those materials or supplies? Each country has found its own model and sometimes several exist within a country.

Those schools that rely on government services are often faced with the failure of those services to supply textbooks, infrastructure or furniture and to pay or supervise teachers. Even if governments supply these services, they are often slow, inefficient, and insufficient. This is true for public schools and community schools. **In these cases, NGOs that are partnering with schools have had to decide whether to give support to the relevant government department for it to supply the needed service, to make up the shortfall itself, or, like many government**

schools, have the school go without. NGO or outside resources are seen as key to the overall success of community school programs. **While many schools are created and survive on their own, the literature reviewed shows clearly that neither communities nor governments have the resources to support community schools completely.**

5. Strengths of community schools

The strengths or successes of community schools, as described in the literature, are many. We list them and attempt to give specific examples of programs or reports documenting these successes. The strengths listed do not apply to all programs reviewed. For example, while community schools have improved gender equity or achievement in some programs, these indicators are no better or sometimes even worse than national averages for community schools in other programs or countries.

Increased demand for education where no schools existed before

World Education in Mali reports having increased demand for education in general through its schools as does Save the Children in Kolondieba region where it first intervened (Tounkara et al. 2000; Muskin 1997). A World Bank study (2000) also notes the growth of demand and particularly the demand for educating girls. Demand for a quality education, and not just access, has also increased.

Increased access and enrollment

Increased access and overall enrollment rates contribute significantly to national education, and community school enrollment is a significant percentage of total enrollment in some countries. For example, ten percent of enrolled children in Mali and Togo are in community schools (Marchand 2000). In general, the choice is not between a community school and a government school; rather it is between a community school and no school (Muskin 1997). World Education in Mali noted a 20 percent increase in the number of children in schools, and a steady increase in the number of schools offering upper-level primary grades (World Education/Mali 2001). Save the Children has seen definite increases in enrollment rates in Sikasso and Koutiala in Mali (Laugharn et al. n.d.; Save the Children/USA 2001b). World Learning in Ethiopia has seen a higher overall enrollment rate in the region where its program operates—total enrollment increased by 8.9 percent and girls' enrollment by 13.8 percent on average (World Learning 1999; World Learning n.d.). The Community School Alliances project in Ghana has seen improving enrollment levels (Community School Alliances Project 2000). A Childscope report from Ghana said that virtually all children in each project community were enrolled in school by the end of the project, but enrollment data were not precise enough to measure what the project had done (Agarwal and Hartwell 1998). Both World Education and Save the Children in Guinea were seen to have increased access through building new classrooms and recruiting new teachers, though the difficulties in supplying teachers for the Save the Children schools meant that access did not increase as much as was hoped (Rifkin and de Marcken 2000; Lederer 2001).

Gender equity

Girls' participation in primary education is said to have grown in a number of programs and gender equity in enrollment has been reached or showed an improvement over government school rates. World Learning in Ethiopia reports that female attendance and success are high. The percent of girls in classes went from 33.3 to 38. In grade 4, community schools had 36 percent girls, compared to only 28 in government schools (World Learning n.d., 1999). CARE's

SCORE project in Ghana reported removing some social barriers to girls' participation in education, though not progressing much in removing economic barriers (Odonokor 2000). World Education in Mali reduced negative attitudes of parents towards girls' schooling (Tounkara et al. 2000) and Save the Children in Mali reports that villagers speak often about the importance of girls' education. Save the Children/Mali does better than the public system in enrolling and keeping girls, and the number of girls passing the end-of-primary exam in these community schools is also increasing (Save the Children/USA 2001a, 2001b). In Guinea, the gross enrollment rate for girls has gone from 31 percent to 37 percent in Mandiana where Save the Children is working (Rifkin and de Marcken 2000). With CARE's work in South Sudan, community education committees sensitized parents and the community on the need to send children and especially girls to school and girls' enrollment increased 96 percent (Faiia 2001). Girls make up 47 percent of the students in ActionAid's community schools in Uganda, and almost 50 percent of those transferring to public schools are girls (Wrightson 2001).

Improved retention

In general, schools report increased retention rates or lower dropout rates than those of government schools (CARE/Ghana with SCORE (Odonokor 2000), World Learning/Ethiopia (World Learning 1999), Save the Children Federation/Uganda (2001a) with CHANCE, and Save the Children/USA in Mali (2001b) and Malawi (Hyde et al. 1997). World Learning in Ethiopia (n.d.) noted a slight increase in retention in the previous three years. USAID/Mali (2000a) claimed that 49 percent of children enrolled in Save the Children community schools were attaining the sixth grade. Also fewer children repeat grades. From 1997 to 1998, the community schools in Mali had a lower repetition rate than public schools for grades 2 through 5 and one equal to that of public schools for first and sixth grade (Save the Children schools in Mali have automatic promotion) (Cissé et al. 2000). Repetition in some primary grades in Ethiopia decreased slightly (World Learning n.d.). In Zambia, the fact that community schools allowed students to repeat grades was seen as a great advantage over government schools, because slow learners were given more time to achieve (Cashen et al. 2001).

Increased quality

A discussion of community schools supported by World Education and Save the Children in Guinea pointed to an increase in educational quality. In the region in which World Education worked, student-teacher ratios fell by 10 percent while gross enrollment increased. The number of students passing the secondary school entrance exam also increased significantly in the region (from 36.08% in 1997 to 59.65% in 1999), though it is difficult to attribute this to World Education's efforts. For Save the Children in Guinea, 60 classrooms now exist in villages that had almost no access (though teachers were not found for all of the new classrooms). The quality of teaching in community schools observed by reviewers was consistent with that in other public schools (Lederer 2001; Rifkin and de Marcken 2000). In Ethiopia, the community schools supported by World Learning have improved teaching quality; school committees approve and sometimes pay for in-service teacher training in subjects such as producing local instructional materials and teaching in local languages, and pay for untrained teachers to be certified, using grants provided through the project (World Learning 1999). Africare schools in Mali appeared to maintain quality factors such as school equipment and textbooks. Ninety

percent of community school children got homework while only 50 percent of public school children studied did (Tounkara et al. 2001).

Improved student performance

Many new community schools reported better academic performances than public schools, which is directly related to quality of teaching. Children in village-based schools in Malawi scored 30 percent higher than their government school counterparts on exams administered to both. Second graders in these schools learned more than those in government schools over the course of the year, and girls in these schools learned significantly more in every subject than girls in other schools (Save the Children n.d.a; Miske and Dowd 1998). Second and fifth grade students in World Education community schools in Mali scored better than government counterparts in both math and French, though achievement is still weak in general even in the community schools (Tounkara et al. 2000). Save the Children in Mali also showed that community school students scored as well as or better than government school children in language and math and that these test results must be attributed to school-related factors rather than anything else (Tietjen 1999; Muskin 1997). Africare in Mali showed that second grade community school students did better in French and math than public schools students, though the public school students did better in grade one than the community school students, showing that the community school students make remarkable progress in one year (Tounkara et al. 2001). CHANCE project students in Uganda, in schools run by Save the Children, are performing significantly better than public school counterparts, and are doing so in a 9-month, instead of 12-month, school year and a shorter school day (Save the Children Federation/Uganda 2001a, 2001b). ActionAid Tanzania had students in their ACCESS centers take the same end-of-year exams as students in public primary schools and the ActionAid students performed better, taking the ten highest scores (ActionAid Tanzania 2000). Community school students in Mali, Tanzania, Uganda, and other countries have also successfully made the transition into public schools (Cissé et al. 2000; ActionAid Tanzania 2000; Wrightson 2001). ActionAid/Uganda found that at the end of four years 19 percent of their active enrollment in a three-year basic education program had transferred into government primary schools. The retention rate for these students was almost 100 percent and well over half scored in the top half of their classes by the end of their first year in the public system (Wrightson 2001). The pass rates of community school students taking end-of-primary exams in Mali have increased each year. In 2000/01, World Education students had a 67 percent pass rate, higher than the national public school pass rate of 55 percent (Cissé et al. 2000; Ramin 2001b). In our only example of increased performance for existing schools with revitalized management, CARE's SCORE program in Ghana, pupil performance in math and English increased significantly in all schools from one school year to the next (Price et al. 1998).

Not all of the above increases in performance can simply be ascribed to community management of schools. Many of the projects introduced other interventions as well, such as new curricula or teaching methods, that may have influenced results. Many community schools also have smaller class sizes than government schools.

Several studies looked at the factors explaining the strong performances of community school students. While type of school (community vs. public) was significant, other factors explaining

performance for World Education/Mali were gender, age, experience of school director, amount of tardiness, teachers' level of education, regular meetings of the director with parents and teachers, and functioning APEs (Tounkara et al. 2000). With Save the Children in Malawi, evaluators believed that children were being effectively instructed in the first two grades. They believed the key factors to be: a modified curriculum that leads to more time being spent on core subjects; regular supervision that maintains standards and motivates teachers; smaller class sizes; and participatory teaching methods. The reduced curriculum also helped learning (Hyde et al. 1997). Another Save the Children/Malawi report noted that when School Management Committees and PTA members are trained, pupil performance in schools tends to increase (Save the Children n.d.a). For Africare in Mali, children performed better where teachers were integrated into the community and where the community provided lodging for teachers (Tounkara et al. 2001).

A study in Malawi of Save the Children's village-based schools, and those public schools involved in the QUEST program, tried to determine the effect of community factors on pupil learning (Dowd 2001). The six composites of community support that the study used represented: school construction activities, monitoring pupils, monitoring teachers, community-teacher collaboration, school committee strength, and PTA strength. Using these composites was an attempt to measure the "impact on learning of a community adding construction resources, enhancing relevance, and heightening local accountability" (p. 11). A stereotype in Malawi, prevalent in other parts of Africa, is that community support of education means that communities provide labor to construct and maintain school buildings. While most communities in the Malawi sample did support schools through building construction and maintenance, the study points out that the majority of communities also monitored pupil absence and learning. In addition, some communities monitored teacher attendance. Few worked with teachers on classroom-related issues. **One finding was "whether a community monitors teacher arrival and attendance and acts upon these matters predicts pupil learning"** (p.14), when controlling for teacher qualifications and instructional skills, class size, and pupil characteristics. The regression model explained 49.24 percent of variation in pupil learning between classes. This result suggests that increased local accountability can enhance educational effectiveness. **The second important composite in predicting gains in pupil math scores was collaboration between teachers and community members on curriculum.** The composite to measure collaboration included whether the community assisted in teaching some subjects and whether they discussed with teachers how to make education more relevant to local life.[2] **Using community labor for school construction and maintenance had no impact on pupil learning in Malawi**.

Good results with untrained teachers in newly created schools

A disadvantage or weakness of many community schools is seen to be teachers' lack of education and training. In addition to being less well educated than public school teachers, teachers in community schools also often do not receive as much, or even any, in-service training. However, this review found that **teachers with parent support can produce good academic results without the same level of formal education and teacher training as those in government schools,** in at least some cases. Save the Children in Malawi found that teachers

[2] The sample was small here as 7 communities did one of these 2 things, and only 2 did both.

with a Primary School Leaving Certificate of Education perform as well as others as long as they are properly trained and motivated (Save the Children n.d.a). Usually a greater number of teachers in community schools are natives of the locality where they teach than those in public schools; when teachers are well integrated into the local community this can be an advantage. Marchand (2000) argues that the social integration of the teacher in the community enriches his or her engagement in the success of the school. He or she is professionally implicated in the results presented to parents. **The teacher is more accountable and motivated and the quality of the teaching relationship compensates, in part, for the absence of formal training.**

New methods of teaching and learning

Both the Community School Alliances (CSA) project in Ghana and Save the Children's schools in Malawi report new methods of teaching and learning that are more interactive and pupil-centered (Community School Alliances Project 2000; Miske and Dowd 1998). CHANCE schools in Uganda incorporate games and discussions into traditional teaching methods (Odonokor 2000). Some evidence exists that classrooms are a little more learner-centered in Save the Children's schools in Mali, though they are still very teacher-centered (Muskin 1997). Childscope parents in Ghana claim that their children are receiving better instruction and have improved skills (Agarwal and Hartwell 1998).

Improved attendance and promptness

Both teacher and student attendance and promptness is said to have increased in a number of cases: World Learning (1999) in Ethiopia, SCORE with CARE/Ghana (Price et al. 1998; Odonokor 2000), Education Development Center's Community School Alliances project in Ghana (Community School Alliances Project n.d., 2000; Education Development Center 2001), and Childscope in Ghana (Agarwal and Hartwell 1998).

Improved infrastructure

Through community mobilization and outside support, the infrastructure of community schools has improved greatly or is better than that of comparable government schools. In Ethiopia, the infrastructure and learning environment of existing schools was improved through repair, building more classrooms, securely fencing buildings, and building libraries (World Learning 1999). An evaluation of Africare schools in Mali found them better equipped than public schools in most ways; they had latrines, running water, teacher housing, teacher chairs, student desks and chairs, blackboards, teacher guides, visual aids, etc. More community school teachers had a copy of the official curriculum than public school teachers did (Tounkara et al. 2001). Because of their NGO support, many community schools are also more likely to have ample stocks of teaching and learning materials (CARE/Ghana with SCORE (Odonokor 2000) and Save the Children/Malawi (Hyde et al. 1997)).

Increase in government and outside support

Programs that work with existing public or community schools have seen an increase in government and outside support for the schools. World Learning in Ethiopia has involved

local officials in community schools from the beginning and this strategy has successful results. Officials have increased contact with the schools, give authorization to move ahead with improvement programs, provide project agents with transport to the schools, and provide material support such as building materials (Rowley, n.d.a; World Learning, 1999). The project has noted increased government-community relations and partnerships (Muskin 2001). For the SCORE project in Ghana, the organized villages and education committees have initiated a lot of broader-based community development initiatives, such as getting the district to supply boreholes, electricity, and pipe-borne water. Particular villages also received school furniture from the district assembly or new teachers assigned by the district. Other local government bodies have supplied funds and other material supplies. One community sent a proposal to an outside source and received funding for classrooms, a library, an office, and a storeroom (Odonokor 2000). With the Education Development Center's work in Ghana, district education officials have begun to educate communities on how education is a shared responsibility (Community School Alliances Project n.d.). Through UNICEF's work with Childscope in Ghana, the district assembly approved financial support to schools for infrastructure, recurrent costs of fuel and travel, and workshop costs (Agarwal and Hartwell 1998). The creation of new schools in Mali has fostered new collaboration with local elected officials. Communal (local government) authorities have become partners for Africare schools. They provide furniture and textbooks, but have also taken steps to increase enrollments and reduce the salary costs of teachers, mediated conflicts between teachers and APEs and APEs and their communities, been involved in renovating the APE offices, and assisted in expanding the school in one community by building another three-classroom block (Africare/Mali 2001). CARE/Mali reported that all the communes of Macina helped the community schools with school supplies. The communal authorities also guaranteed one month's salary for all the teachers at a particular school (Cissé et al. 2001).

Effective parents' associations (APEs, PTAs, and school management committees)

Effective and active parents' associations are a strength of community schools, in comparison to traditional public schools, and are one reason given for community school students' achievement. Existing associations became more active in many cases reviewed. While improved parents' associations is a strategy for improving school quality and equity, it is also a desired outcome of many interventions. The APEs with whom World Education works in Mali have become vibrant local organizations—more democratic and inclusive than before, bringing tangible benefits to the school and community. They have shown initiative to resolve issues, seek assistance, make demands on authorities, set aside funds for their own operations, and pay expenses for teachers' annual refresher training (Welmond 2000b; Tietjen 1999). Those in Benin have become functional, democratically-run organizations, controlling the management of funds for their schools (World Education 2001). In Guinea, APEAEs (parents' associations—the equivalent of APEs in other Francophone countries) have increased their participation in managing schools, monitoring results and dropout, and enforcing boy-girl equity (Fox et al. 1999). World Learning claims that its intervention in Ethiopia has resulted in significant changes in school governance and relations between schools, communities, and the education administration (World Learning 2000). Save the Children in Mali found school management committees to be effective at some tasks. Muskin (1997) saw that management happened locally and that parents were more involved than in government schools. A later report (Laugharn et al.

n.d.) noted that the school management committees (SMCs) excelled at tasks that could be carried out within the village but did not reach out to authorities or other external partners effectively. PTAs associated with CARE's SCORE program in Ghana have begun to do such things as collecting outstanding schools fees, repairing buildings, hiring a carpenter to build furniture, asking parents to buy textbooks for their children, and putting extra classes in place. In addition, PTA and SMC meetings have attracted more parents, more active participation at meetings, the attendance and participation of more women, and more frequent meetings of PTA executives (Odonokor 2000; Price et al. 1998). The Community School Alliances program in Ghana also reported more frequent or regular PTA meetings and better attendance at those meetings (Community School Alliances Project, n.d.; Education Development Center, Inc. 2001).

Communities more involved in education

Communities are more involved in education, often the result of improved parents' associations, in many more and different ways than they were before. Community roles and activities include fundraising, often through agriculture or communal fields, providing accommodation for teachers, renovating or building classrooms and school buildings, providing local building materials, giving teachers land to farm, providing a school vehicle, building or paying for school furniture, providing sports equipment, giving teachers foodstuffs, purchasing textbooks and teaching and learning materials, and buying school supplies for students. They also recruit teachers, pay teacher salaries or for additional tutoring after class, monitor teachers and students for performance and attendance, and patrol villages for truancy or school grounds for security. Communities are recruiting students, doing school planning, instituting bylaws against taking students out of school to do work, maintaining a relationship with a local government school, organizing and paying for preschools, forming girls' committees to enroll and keep girls in schools, and getting official recognition for schools from the government (Price et al. 1998; Odonokor 2000; Community School Alliances Project n.d., 2000; Education Development Center 2001; Save the Children Federation/Uganda 2001a; Agarwal and Hartwell 1998; Save the Children/USA 2001b; Hyde et al. 1997; ActionAid Tanzania 2000; Laugharn et al. n.d.; Tounkara et al. 2000, 2001; von Hahmann 1998; World Learning n.d.; Rowley n.d.a). Childscope in Ghana noted that communities were taking more responsibility for teacher appointments and behavior (Agarwal and Hartwell 1998). The Community School Alliances project also reported that teachers make a greater contribution to education: in one town, a teacher gave extra classes for 1 to 2 hours a day after school (Education Development Center 2001).

Increased parental participation

Parent involvement in schools and in their children's education is reported to have increased as well as the communities'. With the Community School Alliances (CSA) project in Ghana, parents visited schools to discuss children's progress, provided exercise books and pens for children, and were more prompt in paying school fees (Community School Alliances Project n.d.). More parents in Mangochi, Malawi were meeting their children's teachers (Hyde et al. 1997). Childscope in Ghana reported that men spent less on drinking and more on children's needs and that parents and teachers had reduced child labor (Agarwal and Hartwell 1998). Two

projects in Ghana reported that parents had lightened or rescheduled children's workloads. Parents had reportedly shifted children's workload from before school to after and had shifted some of girls' workload to their brothers or reduced their workloads altogether and had reduced children's selling in the evenings (Price et al. 1998; Odonokor 2000; Community School Alliances Project n.d.). Parents of ActionAid community school students in Uganda are attracted to the schools' flexible and child-friendly approach, are strongly involved in monitoring school activities, and consequently have become involved and interested in their children's learning—unusual for rural parents (Wrightson 2001).

Increased relevance to local needs in newly created schools

Save the Children in Mali, which begins instruction in local languages and has its own curriculum that focuses on local knowledge and integrating students into village life in addition to academic subjects, sees that **community schools do increase leavers' abilities to contribute to and reintegrate into their communities**. Community school students tend to stay in their village, unlike other school leavers, and parents see them as rooted to tradition (Save the Children/USA 2001b). Others see the community school model as valuing village competence and knowledge, and that the model impacts village life through other village infrastructures. It is the democratization of education. Integrating local knowledge and practical skills into the primary school curriculum broadens and strengthens community schools (Tounkara et al. 2001). The original Save the Children schools in Mali were in a wealthy cotton district whose communities were not inclined to enroll their children in public schools. Rather than being excluded from education because of its costs, communities responded to models of education tailored to suit the local environment (Tietjen 1999). The cultural factors of demand for education are very clear in Senegal, where some communities refuse to participate in public education because of its lack of religious instruction. Since community schools there have allowed religious education, they have been successful (Marchand 2000).

Community schools have accented alternative educational offerings and productive activities, and introduced new and flexible curricula. Textbooks have been adapted and produced in local languages in many cases and the introduction of flexible school schedules and calendars is an additional strong point (World Bank 2000). One unique strength of community schools in Mali, where constant strikes by students or teachers cause years of education to be missed, is that they shelter their students from disruption (Welmond 2001, 2000b).

Impact on national education systems from newly created schools

Community schools have an impact on national education systems in a number of ways, bringing about educational innovations or reforms and assisting in the process of decentralization. **They have helped to move monitoring, supervision, and training to a more local level and contributed to the decentralization of basic education management.** Decentralizing the cost of education (having communities pay for education) is also a contribution (World Bank 2000).

Community schools' introduction of national languages as a medium of instruction has influenced the public education system in both Mali and Senegal (Cissé et al. 2000; Diarra et al. 2000; World Bank 2000). Save the Children in Mali helped add practical skills to the public

school curriculum (Save the Children/USA 2001a). The *écoles communautaires de base* in Senegal developed a new curriculum that was innovative because it was developed regionally rather than centrally. This curriculum includes local and cultural activities and is more likely to be adapted to different environments (Marchand 2000; Diarra et al. 2000).

Community schools have introduced the idea of a flexible school calendar negotiated with local people, and have brought pedagogical innovation and more active forms of teaching to the classroom. The schools have also introduced local participation in education both in managing and creating schools, made teachers accountable to communities, and mobilized communities to contribute infrastructure, school equipment, and recurrent costs (World Bank 2000; Diarra et al. 2000; Marchand 2000).

Specific examples of inputs to national systems can be found in Mali, Malawi, and Senegal. Community participation, accountability to communities, and parents' associations are now taken for granted in Malian education (Welmond 2000b). The community school experience influenced PRODEC, the ten-year education plan in Mali (Save the Children/USA 2001b). Community schools helped the government to disseminate the *pédagogie convergente* model, decentralize the management of education, introduce national languages into teaching, formulate new curricula, and introduce community participation into education (Cissé et al. 2000).

Save the Children in Malawi honed a field-based system of teacher and community training and support that focused on improving instructional practice in an eight-school pilot investment between 1994 and 1998. Because of its success, Save the Children and the District Education Office in Mangochi applied this teaching-focused intervention district-wide in January 1999 through a project called QUEST. The project aims to support teachers, head teachers, and supervisors to see more participatory and diversified pedagogical strategies. It also promotes using locally available and relevant materials in teaching the national curriculum. The program further engages communities to support teachers in school management and in the classroom. QUEST has spread to 3 districts and seeks to improve the quality of education in 455 schools. Lessons learned from community schools are being used by the District office to enhance quality in public schools (Dowd 2001; Save the Children n.d.a).

ActionAid Kenya created and supports feeder schools designed to send students into formal schools. ActionAid outlined a locally-based curriculum in consultation with communities and developed corresponding teaching and learning materials. The focus was on relevance, appropriateness, and flexibility. The materials developed were being piloted in public schools with a good response (Mohammed et al. 2000).

6. Challenges for community schools

For the most part, the examples in this section on challenges come from programs in which community schools were newly created. The few examples from existing schools with revitalized management are highlighted.

Poor student performance

In Mali, concern exists over the lower pass rates for Save the Children community school students in the end-of-primary exams as compared to public school students (though this has improved markedly). The community school pass rate was about 32 percent in 2000-01, while the rate for public schools in the Sikasso region was 45 percent (Cissé et al. 2000; Ramin 2001a, 2001b). Moving into public secondary schools should not be the only factor on which program success is based because most primary students in Mali, and elsewhere, do not continue. In addition, the Save the Children model in Mali was not originally designed to support the continuing education of students (Muskin 1997, 2001). Many community school programs have not existed long enough or do not have a formal way to measure student achievement either over time or in comparison to government schools.

Poor teacher qualifications

As mentioned earlier, the lack of teacher education and qualification is often seen as a weakness of community schools. Now that many community schools are focused on their students passing end-of-primary exams to enter public schools, teachers must be able to teach in French or English, as well as national languages. In 1997, Save the Children in Mali found that students did not have adequate training to continue school in French and that a program weakness was the lack of teacher professionalism and local people who could teach in French (Muskin 1997; Save the Children 1997). A recent Save the Children evaluation noted that turning someone with a ninth grade education into a primary school teacher with 45 days of training is ambitious. This lack of initial education and training means that teachers require more follow-up and support, which requires inputs into a different part of the teaching process (Save the Children/USA 2001a). Teachers' lack of qualifications and training can have a direct impact on the educational quality that children receive (Ramin 2001a). In Zambia, communities assess teachers by their dedication to teaching underprivileged children and to helping the community. These standards, rather than academic ones, are used because hiring qualified teachers poses financial constraints (Cashen et al. 2001).

Lack of recognition for unofficial teacher training

ActionAid in Uganda trains instructors to teach in their community schools. The teachers are given training in child-centered, participatory teaching methodology and the subjects they are to teach. Through continued project monitoring and support, many of these teachers give good instruction. As this training program has no official recognition, and not all instructors have an 'O' Level degree, this very able teaching force of over 400 may disappear from the Ugandan education system at the end of the ActionAid intervention (Wrightson 2001).

Poor quality of education

The debate is heated over the quality of education offered in community schools and whether these schools offer a second-best education to the poor (Muskin 1997). Community schools are often perceived as "discount" schools because they recruit unqualified teachers, do not follow school construction norms, and lack certain inputs (Tounkara et al. 2001). Rugh and Bossert (1998) found that despite the effort community school programs expend, no significant difference in achievement levels of children or appreciable change in the methods of teaching and learning existed in comparison to government schools. They conclude that improving quality may require technical experts rather than communities. Quality concerns among community schools in Mali arose from the Ministry of Education's lack of capacity to supervise them effectively (Kante 2001).

Lack of support and supervision for teachers

The lack of support and supervision for teachers is a challenge for many community schools. The corollary to this is that many public schools teachers also suffer from a lack of supervisory visits by government inspectors and pedagogical advisors, though in Mali, the number of visits was much higher for public than for community schools (Tounkara et al. 2001). Save the Children and Africare evaluators in Mali pointed out that community facilitators hired by the NGOs, who are tasked with giving pedagogical support, aren't education experts and so should not replace visits by government inspectors or pedagogical counselors (Tounkara et al. 2001; Save the Children/USA 2001a). USAID/Mali notes lack of teacher supervision and support as a problem in general with the community schools they fund (Ramin 2001a). Childscope in Ghana, working with existing schools, noted the same deficiency (Agarwal and Hartwell 1998). In Zambia, lack of supervision and financial support are blamed for inconsistent educational quality and a deficiency of teachers and supplies (Cashen et al. 2001). Tietjen (1999) notes that while APEs may require less support over time, teachers in community schools in Mali will not.

Lack of teachers

The evaluation of the Childscope project (that worked with existing schools) in Ghana noted the shortage of teachers for schools, and that those who were there were not trained (Agarwal and Hartwell 1998). Part of the teacher deficit arose because untrained teachers were dismissed when the government appointed trained teachers to the Childscope schools. But then the new teachers did not arrive or left the schools. ActionAid in Tanzania assumed they could recruit secondary school leavers from the communities to teach, however, the majority of potential teachers are illiterate or poorly-trained primary leavers. Less than eight percent of teachers have either a secondary school or a Grade A teaching certificate. Training such teachers for effective teaching is a challenge and retaining the few teachers with official qualifications is not easy as they look for jobs in the public schools (ActionAid Tanzania 2000). In Zambia, teacher turnover rates in community schools are high; the main cause is low morale, due to lack of financial compensation and professional support (Cashen et al. 2001). In Mali, the community school teaching force is unstable. Because of the lack of training and the low and often irregular salaries, teachers are not always motivated (Ramin 2001a; Save the Children 1997). Save the Children in Mali notes that school management committees and parents understand the link

between the qualifications of teachers and successful schooling. After starting with neoliterate teachers, the committees have gradually recruited up to 520 teachers with a minimum of ninth grade education. However, some communities find it difficult to keep qualified teachers. In 2000, over 300 new teachers were recruited to replace less qualified ones or fill vacancies. Some school management committees, hoping to get PRODEC teachers paid by the government, did not renew teacher contracts. Then, when the government teachers did not materialize, the schools were left without any teachers because the former teachers had already found other jobs (Save the Children/USA 2001b). Welmond (2001, 4) describes parents at World Education schools in Mali as having the choice between "poorly qualified teachers that they can barely afford or 'free' qualified teachers [government teachers] who may never show up." The problem for community schools in Guinea is that the government will only recognize schools staffed by government-certified teachers. Communities, therefore, cannot recruit teachers locally and the government has difficulty staffing schools in remote areas (Rifkin and de Marcken 2000).

Lack of local resources

The lack of resources within villages and among parents is a crucial challenge for community schools, and one reason why some educators do not support community schools. They do not agree with the notion that poor people should pay for their children's education. **Having communities carry the full burden of teacher salaries is neither equitable nor sustainable** (Rifkin and de Marcken 2000). The weakness of the resource base, however, is often mitigated by the involvement of donors or NGOs, and, more rarely, through government support. Welmond describes the problem: "Successful community mobilization has led to a ratcheting up of expectations and, as a consequence, a situation where the demand for more and better education outstrips the community's capacity, even with international NGO assistance, to meet this demand" (2001, 5). In general, parents often struggle to pay school fees, which mean that teachers may not be paid. If teachers are paid by communities, it is usually at a very low, and perhaps unsustainable, rate; for example, Save the Children teachers at Kissa once went on strike (Muskin 1997). Many programs, such as those in Mali, talk about community fatigue in paying for their schools (Ramin 2001a). In other cases, communities can only afford to pay three teachers, when a six-grade school would do better with more (Devine 2001; Cissé et al. 2000). World Education in Mali believes that the economic burden of paying school fees—not the number of school-age children or the quality of education—that keep enrollments lower than projected in some areas. Placing the entire financing burden on parents of students is the problem. World Education is also concerned that the number of first grade classes has remained relatively stable over the years despite the fact that new schools have been created, implying that older schools are not enrolling new first grade students on an annual basis. They attribute this to the financial strain put on parents with a number of children (World Education/Mali 2001). In Zambia, communities identified their needs but rarely possessed the technical and professional skills required to mobilize resources to meet these needs. Community found that funding recurrent costs was the most problematic. Community schools that pay their teachers usually charge school fees to raise this money; this leads to a dangerous situation as most children enrolled in community schools to avoid the fees charged by government schools (Cashen et al. 2001).

Lack of community financing

Community resources are being stretched, often at the same time that community schools are adding more upper-level primary grades. School resource needs are rising, particularly as students aim to succeed in public exams and enter public schools. In addition, the community as a whole needs to see the school as its responsibility, both financially and otherwise, rather than have schools financed only by parents. In an Africare/Mali review, only 25 percent of community schools noted that that APEs raised funds (Tounkara et al. 2001). The community school becomes a nonprofit, private school if only parents who can afford it pay for it. Raising most of the money from parents can cause equity issues by excluding poor children. If the school fees are paid per student, then those who educate more children pay more. It is also inequitable to force underserved areas to bear a higher burden in paying for education than the more affluent areas that the government has targeted (Tietjen 1999).

Lack of government support

The demand for government support is rising, and as education systems decentralize, work needs to be done to ensure that community schools are part of the budget and school-support system, at the communal or district level (World Education/Mali 2000; Tounkara et al. 2001). The lack of official support is noted as a weakness for USAID-funded schools in Mali and community schools in general (Ramin 2001a; Save the Children 1997; World Bank 2000).

Gender equity

Gender equity, while often better than in government schools, has not been reached in many cases. Community schools still reflect the general low girls' enrollment throughout the system. World Education/Mali schools reported that girls made up 40 percent of enrollment in their schools in 1999 (World Education/Mali 2000), but retaining girls in these schools remains a challenge (Tounkara et al. 2000).

Low enrollments, dropout, and repetition

Enrollment in general has been less than projected in certain geographic areas in Mali and dropout rates are significant, particularly in the higher grades. Between third and fifth grades, community schools in Mali lose a quarter of their enrollment (6 to 8 times the dropout rate in other forms of education). After the first year, community school promotion rates are lower than those for public and private schools, but still above 50 percent by the fifth year (Cissé et al. 2000; Ramin 2001a, 2001b).

Poor infrastructure and lack of textbooks and materials

In many cases, though not always true for schools supported by NGOs or other donors, community schools have poor facilities or infrastructure. A Save the Children evaluation in Mali found poor latrines and lack of cupboards to keep supplies. World Education in Mali found that many community schools had a fourth year, but only three classrooms to house them (World Education/Mali 2000). Another report stated that the current challenge for the community

schools was the lack of infrastructure and teaching materials (Tounkara et al. 2000). The quality of school construction is an issue for community schools, particularly in West Africa where community schools tend to be built of mud and local materials, which are cheaper, but need to be repaired annually and do not protect children or materials from rain. Cement or permanent building are much preferable, though they cost more. Community schools in Zambia vary in the quality of infrastructure but some without roofs noted that children could not attend school in the rain (Cashen et al. 2001).

USAID community schools in Mali suffer in many cases from lack of materials and textbooks whether in the case of World Education, where communities mobilize resources but there are no books in the marketplace (the government is supposed to supply textbooks to World Education community schools) or in the case of Africare, where communities are expected to pay for textbooks in the third year of school when not all of them can afford to do so (Ramin 2001a; World Education/Mali 2000; Tounkara et al. 2001). More than half the community schools studied in Zambia did not receive materials or supplies from the District Education Office (Cashen et al. 2001).

Sustainability

Whether these community school programs are sustainable remains to be seen. The success of community schools may depend on the involvement and support of an outside organization (Muskin 1997). Many international NGOs partner with and train local NGOs to support and deliver these programs, but will local NGOs be able to provide appropriate support without assistance and are they are interested in sustaining community schools (Tietjen 1999)? In a World Education study in Mali, half the communities said that their APE could function without NGO support while the other half were not sure if they could function without the advice and access to outside resources (Welmond, 2000a). Muskin (1997) recognized that, despite training, communities in Mali lack the dynamism to run schools adequately and that school committees were organized more like traditional village bodies. In Mali, Africare evaluators questioned whether communities could even pick up the cost of textbooks in the third year of operation, after the NGO had paid for them for two years (Tounkara et al. 2001). Tounkara et al. suggested that Africare needed to decrease support gradually while helping the school identify new funding sources. For example, schools could engage in income-generating activities. In Malawi, an evaluation found that unless the government paid teachers' salaries, the community schools would not continue to operate because communities said they could not provide the minimum salary. Eighty percent of parents, however, did say that they would continue to support the school if Save the Children withdrew its support, but only parents who served on the school committee felt they were involved with the school (Hyde et al. 1997).

Evaluations of two projects in Ghana that worked with existing schools also expressed doubts about the sustainability of their community management efforts. In the Community School Alliances project, the Education Development Center (EDC) measured the sustainability level of participating schools and communities; only 53 percent of the first two cohorts of communities indicated high or moderate sustainability (Education Development Center 2001). In evaluating the SCORE program of CARE/Ghana, the existence of Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) teams indicated that communities would retain the planning skills learned but they might not be

able to sustain inputs for maintaining and developing infrastructure. Communities can only raise a small amount of money by imposing levies on themselves and evaluators were unsure of whether they would apply to district agencies or other donors for school funding. As some schools did seek outside funding under the project, there was some hope that they could continue to do so (Odonokor 2000).

In comparing high- and low-performing communities in the Community School Alliances project, the EDC (2001) found some community factors that affect the success of community schools. Successful communities: were small and isolated, and therefore usually more cohesive; had only one primary school, which allowed for concentrated effort; had access to local resources (which don't need to be financial) and a willingness to contribute; and had two or three strong local leaders devoted to supporting quality education. Less successful communities: were urban, peri-urban or commercial centers which were larger and more spread out; contained more than one school; and had parents and community members of diverse backgrounds and professions. These communities tended to focus on other activities so mobilizing and planning for school activities was more difficult. These obstacles could be overcome with a strong local leader, but otherwise it was difficult for sustainable change to take hold. The implication is that community schools or community management and financing of schools are more likely to succeed in rural areas.

Lack of places for students to continue and lack of certification

Even community schools' apparent success can create an additional challenge. In countries with a large number of children enrolled in community schools and an increasing number of students completing school or passing the end-of primary exam, not enough secondary school places or even places at upper primary exist for community school students. Excess demand has been created without a way to meet it (Rifkin and de Marcken 2000; Save the Children/USA 2001a).

In some countries, community school programs are not certified or formally recognized. In Uganda, parents and communities want students in ActionAid's community schools to take exams or get a certificate at the end of the three-year cycle. Some learners transfer to public schools after only one or two years in the program for this reason. The lack of certification is particularly difficult for those who do not wish to enter government primary schools but would like vocational training at polytechnics, which require a primary school leaving certificate, or the equivalent, for entry (Wrightson 2001).

Hostile attitudes and lack of information

In Mali, hostile attitudes toward community schools remain, some at the government ministry level but also among teachers, teachers' unions, and existing federations of APEs (World Education has begun alternative federations of APEs). Teacher hostility stems in part from their decline in status with the use of contract teachers and the slow growth of salaries. Teachers' union representatives said that community school teachers threatened their professional status. Existing APE federations fear losing political influence if new federations are created (Welmond 2000a, 2000b, 2001). In Zambia, a community school teacher was ridiculed by her government

school counterparts for teaching at a community school as they are not considered as "serious" as government schools (Cashen et al. 2001).

Save the Children/USA (2001a) in Mali found that communes (local government offices) assist community schools only marginally and in rare cases. Elected officials said that they did not know very much about community schools run by NGOs or how they fit into communal budgets. Confusion existed in Mali at higher levels over decentralization—whether community schools were public schools or not when it came to their inclusion in communal-level funding. Communes prioritized government schools above community schools (Welmond 2000a, 2001).

The eight principal difficulties of community schools are described as being in large part ideological (World Bank 2000):

- political resistance to change
- low level of motivation
- the resistance of teachers' unions
- too rapid decentralization of education
- insufficient resources
- lack of technical competence at the management and the local levels
- community disengagement
- poverty and illiteracy.

A study of community schools in eight countries, six of them in Africa (Chad, Guinea, Mali, Senegal, Tanzania, and Togo), discusses their general weaknesses (World Bank 2000). In addition to those noted above, they include:

- the lack of legislation regarding community schools and specific laws for decentralization
- the lack of political engagement in community schools by government education actors
- the lack of contact between public and community schools
- the lack of certification for community school students
- the lack of students transferring from community schools to public schools
- the lack of competence at the local level to manage financial resources
- the limited financial resources of the government.

Currently, community schools are not integrated into the national education system in most countries; they are primarily supported by communities and NGOs. They do not receive financing from the government, they are not always accounted for in national statistics, there isn't always official means of transferring between the two systems, and the government does not help in activities like training. The limits of the current situation include:

- the financial and institutional capacity of communities
- the financial capacities of NGOs
- the payment of teacher salaries (and those of inspectors, heads and supervisors)
- the creation and distribution of textbooks
- adequate teacher training
- the lack of certification of community school graduates.

If these limits are not overcome, countries run the risk that the poorest children in communities still will not have access to schools, that over time community schools provide a very poor

quality of education, that the disparities between rural and urban zones will increase, and that communities will lose interest in supporting schools (World Bank 2000).

7. The cost of community schools

The costs of community schools are difficult to measure precisely and to compare across models or countries. While the general assumption is that they are lower cost models of education than public schools (and this is true in some cases), those few who studied the question carefully often found this not to be the case. **While the cost of education is lower for governments in many cases, actual costs per pupil are the same as those for public school students or even higher in some cases, and are being covered by NGOs and communities.** In a review of CARE community school programs, though evidence is not clear, recurrent/per pupil costs are comparable to government costs (Hartwell and Pittman 1999). While a real cost comparison could not be done for Save the Children's schools in Malawi, they did not seem to be more expensive to establish or run than government schools. The recurrent costs (teacher salaries and materials) in the Malawi community schools were comparable to actual recurrent costs in government schools, but per pupil total costs were higher (Hyde et al. 1997).

Rather than total or per pupil costs, the larger question for many is that of the cost-effectiveness of community schools (looking at efficiency and student outcomes). An analysis of cost-effectiveness requires much more financial data than were available in most program reports. However, a study in Mali compared the costs of World Education-supported and Save the Children-supported community schools looking for an answer as to which model was more cost-effective (Tietjen 1999). As described in the program summaries at the end of this paper, these two approaches to community schools are quite different, though they are coming to resemble one another more closely, particularly in recent years. Save the Children, at the time of the study, hired local, unqualified teachers, had the community construct schools out of local materials, and financed the costs of a local languages curriculum and books. Teachers were paid minimally by communities.[3] World Education assisted schools modeled on public ones. Construction was often more substantial, teachers more qualified and highly paid, and the government was expected to supply textbooks, furniture, and supervision. The models were not directly comparable, as World Education's program includes a component for developing and supporting APEs, which artificially raises the cost per student, making the program look more expensive. At start-up, World Education's model cost more per school and per student, but community contributions were also higher. Save the Children teachers required more support and supervision than World Education teachers and so cost per student was much higher for them. In an overall comparison of cost per student, Save the Children's model was 50 percent more expensive due to much higher management and school support costs, as unqualified and poorly paid teachers needed many more resources. In both Mali and Malawi, higher per pupil unit costs of community schools in relation to public schools are also due to the smaller community school class size (Tietjen 1999; Hartwell 2001).

The two community school models studied are not really low-cost forms of education. **The trade-offs in lower salaries for teachers mean more resources are needed in training and materials, and turnover is higher.** Low-cost construction means that buildings may not last as long. The use of government materials and textbooks reduces the costs of material development for NGOs, but may result in poor academic performances, reducing promotion and community

[3] Many Save the Children schools have since begun to hire French-speaking teachers from outside the community and pay them much higher salaries.

support (Tietjen 1999). A proliferation of community schools may also increase government costs rather than reducing them, as the government tries to rescue poor quality schools, for example (Rugh and Bossert 1998). Extensive support and preparation from external organizations seem necessary for community schools. This support is cheaper than that of the government bureaucracy, but not insubstantial (Tietjen 1999).

While community schools are not lower-cost education models, it is possible that savings may show up in their increased effectiveness in comparison to government schools. However, the Mali comparison did not find either model highly effective, and Save the Children and World Education community school models in Guinea would also need to become more cost-effective in order to spread to a national level (Tietjen 1999; Rifkin and de Marcken 2000).

Often "a complete educational package [is expected to] include high-cost buildings and furnishings, expensively qualified teachers, and resource-intensive support structures" (Rugh and Bossert 1998, 172). Rugh and Bossert claim that the community school models in their study show that this does not need to be true. However, at least in Mali, poor quality, locally-constructed infrastructure is an issue. While it allows some form of education to take place, such buildings need to be rebuilt each year and do not protect school materials. Save the Children/USA (2001a) found that mud buildings discourage villagers. Save the Children suggests that though poverty may justify building with local materials, mud should be the medium of last resort as communities deserve better. Communities should find money for cement classrooms, or at least cement floors. The SCORE project in Ghana learned that a beautiful school building is very useful in attracting good teachers and increasing enrollment (Price et al. 1998). Poorly qualified teachers are also a problem for effective community schools, as is the support that they require. Save the Children/Mali found it was easy to reduce construction and material costs of schools without impacting quality greatly, but difficult to reduce the cost of the teaching corps and have the same quality of education. It seems unlikely that a less qualified, lower-paid teacher with less support material and fewer books for the students can succeed as well as a motivated teacher with materials and books (Save the Children/USA 2001a).

Community participation itself has a cost in money, time, and effort. There are two main resource issues: "the expectation that communities can be counted on to contribute significant resources of time, effort, and money to the support of education delivery; and the question of how much of [an externally funded] project's resources needs to be devoted to mobilizing and sustaining the interest of communities" (Rugh and Bossert 1998, 161). Mobilizing community interest may not lead to significant community support. Community participation can be costly in terms of resources. Often projects invest in community participation up front by holding meetings, conducting surveys, and conducting initiation activities to establish schools or programs. When projects draw back and expect communities to take over program support, communities usually cannot invest as much which leads to a decrease in community participation and support.

Divesting much of fiscal and administrative responsibility to the local community is attractive for two reasons: "mobilizing private resources. . . could allow the government to concentrate its national education efforts more strategically and intensively; . . . [and] adding the community's

limited resources to the government's should also help the country to approach the goal of universal basic education on a much shorter time horizon" (Muskin 1997, 47). The literature reviewed illustrates examples of communities that greatly increased their finance of education and support to schools. CARE/Mali (2000) found that over half of their schools recovered their recurrent costs in 1999 and in several West African countries 10-15 percent of children were being educated mostly with community resources and with very little public assistance (Marchand 2000). The CHANCE schools in Uganda felt that sustainability of the program had increased as the third batch of facilitators (teachers) hired were paid for by communities rather than Save the Children (Save the Children Federation/Uganda 2001a). The World Bank in Tanzania found that with a community management intervention, parental contributions were 10-20 times more than had previously been committed to schools. Parents were willing to help finance school activities if they knew how the money would be spent and were confident that there were adequate places to allow them to enroll their children in school on time (Uemura 1999).

In the Mali comparison, the financial burden of Save the Children communities was light; in 1999, the communities bore only 7 percent of the total cost, raising questions about the depth of community commitment and the long-term sustainability of schools. Village councils contributed some money to schools outside of user fees, but community members do not appear to be partners in financing schools. Public school parents paid more for their children's education than Save the Children parents did, and community payments from sources other than parents were about the same as those to public schools. For World Education schools, the government was and is unable to support its share of costs; therefore, the community has an extra burden and must rely on donors to fill in the gaps. World Education communities pay 60 percent of the costs associated with the model, but obviously the costs of running a school exceed what communities can provide. One conclusion of the study is that **community schools may be more affordable than government schools because the financing structure has been changed to assign everyone the costs that are easiest for them to bear.** Rural people "become responsible for costs they are willing and able to support. . . .[T]he cost per student may not change, but all parties' ability to contribute is enhanced" (Tietjen 1999, 82).

As alluded to earlier, forcing poor people to pay for education raises serious equity considerations, of which communities themselves are very aware. A Save the Children report noted that school management committee trainings in Mali make these members more aware of the inequitable allocation of resources. Community members learn about constitutional rights, including the right to education. Often communities become angry, asking why they have to pay for their children's education when people in the city with more money send their children to school free of charge (Save the Children/USA 2001b).

Overall, communities are clearly overtaxed financially and cannot bear the entire financial burden of community schools. Save the Children in Mali noted that communities are burdened by paying teachers' salaries and taxes with only their limited cotton revenues (Save the Children/USA 2001b). World Education community school participants in Mali were asked how they would meet new demand for education. Most indicated that they had reached the limits of financial self-sufficiency and that they would need to mobilize resources outside of the

community (Welmond 2001). Marchand (2000) found that that it does not seem viable to let communities pay for schools in any of the three West African countries he studied.

In the future, community schools can not be self-funded and self-reliant entities. Eventually they will need to obtain government resources to remain sustainable. World Education, and other organizations focusing on school management and representation, have thus had a positive impact in organizing representative bodies that can make demands on the state for improved education offerings. In Mali, with its long history of community schools, those involved in community schools see the decentralization of education taking place as a way to gain resources for their schools through the local communes [local government] (Welmond 2001). As Save the Children plans to phase-out their support to community schools in Mali, they are working with the Ministry and communal councils to examine alternative options for community school support (Save the Children/USA 2001b). Many argue that the community school in Mali must become a communal school to survive, still managed by communities but with funding from the commune (Welmond 2001). The Ministry of Education recently agreed and started to pay community school teachers' salaries through decentralized structures at the communal level.

8. Critical factors for the future of community schools

Governments must be institutionally and financially engaged to sustain community schools (World Bank 2000). Communities' inability to finance education in the long term, the need for educational equity in resource allocation, the need to improve the quality of teaching, and to support textbook and teacher guide production and dissemination necessitates government involvement (Marchand 2000). Reports give detailed recommendations as to which aspects of schools should be maintained by governments and possible continuing roles for communities. Mali is the most documented community school model and so these recommendations draw somewhat heavily from the Mali literature.

1) Community schools need to be legally recognized and integrated into the national education system.

Community schools could be integrated into the national educational system in several ways. The education system could: support two national, distinct, complementary models of education; progressively assimilate the community schools into public schools; or create the communal school (supported by local government) where both community and public schools are transformed into one new model of a community-managed school with communal funding (World Bank 2000). The evolution of community schools outside the national educational system limits their present and future offerings whereas integrating the model into the official system permits them to respond more efficiently to educational problems. Each country should establish clear policies supporting communities in providing access to basic education (Ramin 2000c).

The necessary conditions for integrating community schools into national education systems include:

- sensitizing governing authorities, as well as other basic education actors, about community schools
- legally recognizing community schools, positioning them as part of the ensemble of educational offerings
- creating special funds for community schools, decentralizing their financial management, finding new financial resources at the local level, and creating a system of monitoring public expenses
- permitting transfers between community and government schools. Similar curricula and bilingual education will be aspects of making this condition possible (World Bank 2000).

The World Bank (2000) report equates the refusal to integrate community schools into the national education system with denying part of the population the right to attend school.

The long-term success of World Education and Save the Children schools in both Mali and Guinea depends on how well they can be integrated into the government system (Tietjen 1999; Rifkin and de Marcken 2000). Incorporation into the national system for the CHANCE project in Uganda would be a major step towards sustainability. As Uganda has introduced universal primary education (UPE), Save the Children believes that the government should cover recurrent costs, not poor communities. Details were being finalized with district officials for the Ministry of Education to take over the recurrent project costs (teacher salaries and textbook provision).

The expansion of core funding from the Ministry for recurrent project costs will allow Save the Children to be a catalyst that helps communities to start schools, and then provides technical support to ensure quality. The NGO's limited funds can be directed to community mobilization, training, and technical capacity building. With new funding, Save the Children will expand the project to other districts, but any new partner districts must commit to paying some recurrent project costs—notably salaries and textbook provision. Funding will still be required to cover Save the Children's involvement, but the districts will bear much of the costs, and communities will contribute their time and labor (Save the Children/USA 2001a).

ActionAid in Uganda planned to transfer some Access centers into formal government primary schools (under the government's Grant Aid provisions) while others would remain as centers with district and local support. The risk in transforming these centers to public schools is that some aspects that attract out-of-school learners, such as flexible calendars, alternative curricula, child-centered and interactive teaching, may be lost (Wrightson 2001). A similar caution is sounded by a parent at Mchini Community School in Zambia's Eastern Province: "Government schools have already failed us. We prefer community schools. . . We would not want the government to take over our school because they would demolish everything the community has set up. If the government follows the community rules, they could get involved, but only if they do not charge fees and introduce uniforms. The community school needs to stay because it accepts all children" (Cashen et al. 2001, 17).

2) *Governments need to pay or at least contribute to teacher salaries, pay for and supply teacher training, improve teachers' working conditions, and professionalize community school teachers.*

In Mali in 2001, the Ministry of Education started paying community school teachers 25,000 francs CFA/month and is making sure that community and public school teachers have equal opportunities for training (Ramin 2001b). But community school teachers still receive less than public school teachers do.[4] If the current disparity between the average salaries of community school teachers and public school teachers continues, teachers from the community schools will depart in large numbers (Tounkara et al. 2001). Another suggestion is that governments should pay 75 percent of community school teacher salaries, with communities paying the balance. Government resources will ensure that teachers' pay is sufficient to reduce turnover and strikes, and increase motivation (Marchand 2000). Participants at the 2000 IIEP/World Bank community schools seminar in Togo noted that alternative payment structures could be developed, such as providing funds to pay teachers via the NGOs. Governments should improve community school quality through pre- and in-service training for all teachers. It is also important that teachers are professionalized (trained and supported), but they shouldn't be made government employees. Teacher management should be left to communities (Ramin 2000c). It was suggested that there be a representative organization for community school teachers since they are not part of public school teachers' unions and that innovative strategies be developed for community school teacher certification (Marchand 2000; Cashen et al. 2001).

[4] Public school teacher salaries start at about 40,000 francs CFA/month.

3) Governments must ensure that local and central government agencies provide monitoring and support to community school teachers.

Local inspections and teacher training institutes should monitor the community schools in Mali and they could train school directors to do pedagogical training within their own schools (Tounkara et al. 2001). Marchand (2000) recommends that government completely take over the pedagogical supervision of teachers. This means increasing the number of pedagogical counselors and enabling inspectors to make their monitoring visits. A number of projects/organizations provided transport to inspectors, usually motorcycles (e.g., Save the Children in Mali (Save the Children/USA 2001a) and the SCORE project in Ghana (Price et al. 1998)).

4) Governments need to provide textbooks and teaching materials to community schools.

Local inspections need to provide textbooks to all schools (Tounkara et al. 2001).

5) Governments need to pay a portion of construction costs for community schools.

Community schools need cement buildings, and, in Mali, APEs should be eligible to receive national funds for school construction envisaged by PRODEC, the 10-year education plan (Tounkara et al. 2001). It was also suggested that government should pay for a school roof (Marchand 2000).

6) Local government needs to become involved in community schools.

In Francophone West Africa, most analysts agree that as education is decentralized, local government must be involved in co-managing and co-financing community schools. However, transferring responsibility to local government and families without transferring adequate resources is ineffective. Community schools cannot be integrated into national systems until decentralization is achieved (Marchand 2000). A proportion of new local taxes in Mali are supposed to be allocated for local schools and a small part of the local government budget is designated for public primary education (7-18%), but this does not compare to the 25 percent designated by the national government (Welmond 2000b Save the Children/USA 2001a). In the division of responsibilities for community schools, local government could:

- develop a policy on expanding schooling
- contribute to financing infrastructure and equipment for schools, and 25 percent of teacher salaries
- develop a local school map
- research partners to finance education (local enterprises) (Marchand 2000).

Save the Children/USA (2001a) suggested that elected officials help choose future school sites so that they feel involved.

Building local government management capacity will require participation from those experienced in community schools management (such as APE federations and NGOs). NGOs should work with local government officials to define their new duties and develop their capacities (Tounkara et al. 2001; Welmond 2000b). An IIEP/World Bank seminar posited that

developing one "communal school" that encompasses both public and community schools will give students equal opportunities and access to resources. A possible division of responsibility for schools would be grades 1-4 offered at the village level, grades 5-6 at the inter-village level, and grades 7-9 at the district level (Ramin 2000c).

7) Community management of schools must be upheld.

Improving access to and quality in schools will continue to be based on community management (Ramin 2000c), though one belief is that too much is currently expected of school management committees. Reasonable community responsibilities could be:

- determining the possibilities for graduates
- participating in financing infrastructure and school equipment
- some participation in paying salaries (25%)
- supervising the teacher
- managing the school as a whole
- developing and guiding partnerships
- representing parents through school management committees or APEs (Marchand 2000).

Others see that communities are capable of managing both finances and schools, as they have been. Zambian communities were not willing to give up school management decision-making to the government, including such functions as setting standards, hiring and firing teachers, deciding on the curriculum, and determining student enrollment eligibility (Cashen et al. 2001). Both responsibility and resources must be transferred to communities (Ramin 2000c).

8) Identify and support local community leaders.

The Community School Alliances project in Ghana noted that the presence and effectiveness of local change agents was a key element in school success, and so local leaders must be identified in each community and then nurtured and supported (Education Development Center 2001). One suggestion for community schools is to have a villager, trained and under the supervision of the school management committee, mobilize the community, research external partners, and facilitate a *cellule école-milleu* (a multisectoral stakeholders advisory group) (Marchand 2000).

9) APE capacity building, including literacy training, needs to be continued.

Literacy training for parents and other community members is beneficial because it increases the likelihood that they will participate in education (Fox et al. 1999). The government is not best placed to work with communities to develop school management skills and NGOs can continue training school management committees (Tietjen 1999; Marchand 2000).

10) APE or school management committee federations need continued support. Local authorities must recognize their legitimate place (Welmond 2000b).

Federations of school management committees and APEs could intervene in a number of areas:

- resource mobilization
- improving statutes regarding teachers
- central buying for textbooks and school equipment

- putting a school map in place
- certifying graduates of community schools
- training school management committee members
- organizing school recruitment campaigns
- sensitizing communities on girls' education
- finalizing agreements with government services to supply resource people to teach students practical skills (Marchand 2000).

11) Continued NGO involvement in education must be encouraged.

The future of community schools will require NGO involvement and close collaboration between NGOs and governments (Marchand 2000; World Bank 2000). Governments should capitalize on NGOs' experience and help them to expand their activities. NGOs themselves cannot support the long-term financial costs of community schools and, after several years, many NGOs have disengaged from community schools. Possible continuing roles for NGOs include:

- training community organizations and school management committees
- training elected municipal officials and developing relationships between them and the schools
- promoting *cellules Cole-milieu* (multisectoral stakeholders advisory groups)
- supporting APE federations
- giving technical support to income-generating activities for schools
- assisting in integrating education and development.

12) Close relationships between community and public schools should be developed.

While community schools can benefit from the supervision and experience of public schools, public schools have much to learn from the community school experiment. The national education system can explore teaching in national languages, new teaching methods, smaller class sizes, and a flexible calendar or schedule. Most importantly, public schools can learn to develop closer relations with the community (Ramin 2000c).

13) Collective rather than individual support for schools must be developed.

Communities need to pay school fees collectively (through community agricultural fields or income-generating activities) rather than having parents pay for each student (Tounkara et al. 2001).

14) Alternative education delivery should be promoted.

Community schools should continue to offer an alternative education. The curriculum should include practical subjects, offer flexible timetables, and adopt participatory teaching methodologies (Marchand 2000; Wrightson 2001).

15) Regional connections should be promoted.

Regional networks and exchanges should be established to share experiences (Marchand 2000).

It is clear that governments need to help community schools survive without negatively influencing the community dynamic of the alternative system. Government support must not kill community initiative (Marchand 2000). Governments should exercise control only where community school results are below standard and should use a contracting strategy to promote decentralization and local initiative. The IIEP/World Bank seminar on community schools noted that supporting community schools is not an end in itself, but should contribute to the process of education reform, including decentralization of the system towards management at the local level (Ramin 2000c). A Ministry of Education official in Zambia stated, "Community schools should never become absorbed into government schools. Rather, government schools should become more like community schools" (Cashen et al. 2001, 18). The question remains how governments should support or intervene in community schools—through existing education structures, such as inspections, or through creating alternate support structures (Marchand 2000).

9. Questions for further research

Questions generated while conducting this review include:

- What makes a community school "legitimate" in the eyes of different stakeholders (communities, local government, policy makers, etc.)?
- Do community schools need to be maintained as a separate educational model?
- Is it beneficial to integrate community schools into the public primary system?
- We have not yet discovered a community school model that has transitioned from NGO or community support to being government-supported. Is it possible and how would it work? Is it more sustainable?
- How should governments be involved? What are effective mechanisms of government support that don't detract from community management?
- If they are not overall less costly than public primary schools, where will resources for the community schools come from?
- NGO resources (both financial and technical) seem key for many successful schools. To what extent are these responsible for community school success? And without them can community schools survive?
- How do alternative education models fit into the process of education reform?
- Should community schools have a certification system different from that of public primary schools?
- Should current community school models continue to expand? If so, how should they scale up?
- Are community schools effective in urban settings?

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ANNEX 1:
Selected country case studies

Government relationships to community schools vary from country to country and the approaches look very different depending on their context. For six countries with a large community school presence, we present a country-wide picture, rather than the work of specific NGOs.

Zambia

Community schools in Zambia emerged in the colonial period and were organized by European missionaries. Following independence, these schools were absorbed by the government, which did not allow nongovernmental education. In recent years, community schools have emerged again in the wake of economic downturn and the inability of public education to meet the needs for low-cost or free education (Cashen et al. 2001). Currently more than 701 community schools in Zambia[5] enroll at least 75,000 pupils, and these are considered an alternative basic education system (ZCSS n.d.; Zambia Ministry of Education n.d.). With 4,290 public primary schools in Zambia in 1999, community schools comprise 14 percent of the public basic education institutions (Brunette 2001). The Zambia Community Schools Secretariat (ZCSS) was established in 1997 as an umbrella organization for NGOs, local authorities, churches, and communities who provide community-based education to children who cannot gain access to other learning institutions. The Secretariat's mission is to "empower communities to establish, own, and participate in the running of community schools for vulnerable children, providing relevant quality education that will empower children and promote their rights" (ZCSS n.d., 1) It implements its mission through forming policy, advocacy, coordinating initiatives/activities of member organizations, mobilizing resources, and setting and monitoring educational standards. In 1998, ZCSS signed a Memorandum of Understanding with the Ministry of Education outlining clear roles and responsibilities for each party. The Ministry has recognized community schools as a complementary system to the existing one in Zambia and pledged to assist community schools to access funds, learning materials, and teacher training programs, seconded some of its personnel, and provided offices for ZCSS in the provinces. The Ministry appointed a community school focal point person in the nine provinces and appointed the Chief Inspector of Schools as the National Focal Point Person for Community Schools within the Ministry (ZCSS n.d.).

Zambia recognizes three different types of community school based on curriculum: 1) those that use the Skills, Participation, Access, Relevant and Knowledge (SPARK) community schools curriculum (10% of schools); 2) schools that use the 7-grade public basic education curriculum (over 50% of schools); and 3) schools that follow a combination of SPARK and other curricula (40%). SPARK is targeted at children 9-16 years old. The abridged curriculum has four levels that equal 7 years of basic education, and includes academic subjects, pre-vocational skills, and life skills.

The Ministry of Education put forward a 3-stage accreditation system for community schools. In the first and developmental stage, the schools must be managed by a Parent Community School Committee (PCSC) appointed by a defined community. They must register with the ZCSS to be recognized by the Ministry and to be eligible for services from either. The PCSC is expected to recruit local teachers who have at least a ninth grade education and pay them some sort of allowance. Stage 2, or intermediate accreditation, means that in addition to the requirements of Stage 1, schools must have teachers with a higher level of education and at least one formally

[5] Sources differ as to whether there are over 400 or over 700 community schools in Zambia. We believe that this discrepancy stems from counting only registered schools, or both registered and unregistered schools. The Zambia Community School Secretariat had over 400 community schools registered in 2000 but estimated that there were over 700 community schools in the country.

certified, have teachers in a training program, apply to the Ministry to pay at least one certified teacher, and have a certain basic level of facilities and number of textbooks per student. Stage 3 is full accreditation and requires that the school must own the land or have a 14-year lease, own a school building, have desks for all pupils, ensure that all teachers have taken part in in-service training, and have a strategy for sustainable funding of the school (Zambia Ministry of Education n.d.).

In 2000, the roles envisioned for the PCSC, the ZCSS, and the Ministry of Education were laid out as follows. The PCSC will hire and monitor teachers and a head teacher/supervisor, work with the Focal Point persons to obtain textbooks and materials, maintain school assets and property, support teachers monetarily and/or with in-kind contributions, enroll pupils, mobilize the community, and raise funds. The ZCSS will continue to develop the SPARK curriculum, make the SPARK manual and curriculum available to all community schools, facilitate teacher recruitment, conduct teacher orientation and in-service training (particularly in those areas specific to community schools or SPARK), develop standardized assessment tools for community schools, implement a community school certificate endorsed by the Ministry, formulate standardized policies for community schools, mobilize funding for community schools and their development, and accredit schools that meet standards. The ZCSS will collect data on community schools annually. The Ministry of Education will appoint Focal Point Persons to work with community schools, assist in paying teachers and supplying government teachers, develop a process for certifying community school teachers, support the training of teachers that the Ministry provides or pays for, monitor pupil performance and quality of teaching, develop quality standards and collaborate with the ZCSS on developing curriculum and designing assessment tools, provide some infrastructure, finance, teaching supplies, books and materials for schools, recognize schools accredited by the ZCSS, include community schools in planning and implementation processes, and ensure that they benefit equally from Ministry investment programs. The Ministry will pay an agreed number of trained teachers and second one teacher per school for those schools that have been operating for at least two years (Zambia Ministry of Education n.d.).

International NGOs and donors (including CARE and UNICEF) in Zambia have, in large part, shifted from supporting individual schools to supporting the ZCSS. The World Bank and other donors have also collaborated in the BESSIP program of assistance to the Ministry of Education to support community schools, beginning in 1999. Zambia Open Community Schools (ZOCS) is the most well-known and respected national NGO running community schools and currently operates 17 (Cashen et al. 2001). ZCSS collected data on community schools in 2000 and counted 416 registered schools. The Ministry had not yet paid the agreed number of teachers. Thirty percent of the schools had been assisted by the Ministry and may have one trained teacher seconded to the school. Only 30 percent of the schools had been visited by the Provincial or District Education Offices in the past 2 years but 70 percent were visited by Focal Point Persons, whose operating costs are funded by UNICEF. Fifty-two different agencies support these community schools, 28 percent of which are run by community-based organizations and 72 percent of which are affiliated with NGOs. The major source of funding for most of these NGO-supported schools is external. **The study also determined that 75 percent of the organizations running community schools do not have the financial or technical capacity to be effective so the schools are underfunded and face a sustainability problem.** Education

standards are compromised in many schools, partly because teachers are vulnerable to lack of funds (only 33% received a consistent allowance, that was often very low), and have low morale and high absenteeism. This leads to the impression that underprivileged people are being given an inferior education. The Focal Point Persons have difficulty providing services without transportation and government policies on community schools are still unclear. The evaluation recommended that funds be made available to the ZCSS to give its affiliate organizations seed money for school income-generating activities to become self-sustainable and pay teachers. The government needs to provide scholarships to community school children (ZCSS 2000).

Mali

In Mali, a 1994 law defines community schools as private schools created and managed by communities or associations to permit the maximum number of children to attain a basic level of education. These schools have "public utility" and the regional inspectorate gives a certificate of opening (called a *recipissé*) if they have at least 20 students, offer a formal education, and respect the ministry definitions. They must use the official curriculum or one recognized by the education authorities (Cissé et al. 2000). The Malian government developed a guide for community school promoters in 1994 and, in 1997-98, integrated Save the Children's "village schools" into the central government education statistics.

In 2001, USAID funded 1,658 community schools in Mali—over 30 percent of the total number of primary schools. Of these schools, 787 were supported by Save the Children, 791 by World Education, and 80 by Africare (Ramin 2001b). In 1999, 53 schools were supported by CAEF (French cooperation) in Gao, Mopti and Kayes, and 22 by GTZ in Dogon country. World Vision, CARE, and Plan International also support community schools in Mali, and others receive support from the Groupe Pivot Education, a consortium of Malian NGOs (Cissé et al. 2000).

The schools use one of two different types of pedagogy: traditional instruction in French, and *pédagogie convergente*, in which instruction begins using national languages and progressively moves to instruction in French. *Pédagogie convergente* is the basis of the new national primary school curriculum being developed in Mali. Save the Children's schools, the original community schools in Mali based on the BRAC model from Bangladesh, used national languages as the medium of instruction. These schools differed from traditional instruction in terms of triennial recruitment, flexible schedules, and no repetition or expulsion. Because parents have demanded that their children take the end-of-primary exams, the Save the Children schools have become more like traditional schools. The entrance age has been reduced to 6-8 and the school cycle has extended from 3 to 6 years with French being introduced in the third year. The curriculum has also moved closer to the traditional primary curriculum.

For more conventional community schools, the government *Centres d'animation pédagogique* (CAPs) and regional education offices give teacher training, co-financed by the NGOs supporting the schools. The inspections and designated pedagogical advisors are also responsible for monitoring the schools and helping teachers. The Malian government, through inspections, also agreed to supply textbooks to schools but one review (Cissé et al. 2000) found that only community schools with NGO support had enough textbooks. The CAP manages the shortage of books by giving priority to public schools. Save the Children developed its own national language books and teacher guides for teaching in French.

Many schools receive help from external sources (NGOs and projects) but, in nearly all cases, communities pay teacher salaries. Teachers are not usually formally certified and the majority have only a primary or ninth grade education. Who pays teacher salaries is an issue that may determine the future of community schools in Mali. Villages can only afford to pay 2 or 3 teachers and governments must assist with these salaries, particularly for the more qualified

teachers in higher grades. Training, follow-up, and increased support to these teachers is also crucial (Cissé et al. 2000).

In November 2000, the World Bank and the Government of Mali, under a program called PISE (Programme d'Investissement dans le Secteur de l'Education), negotiated a $45 million loan for 2001-04, of which 34 million is for basic education including building schools and providing textbooks. Under the terms of the loan, the government agreed to finance a portion of community school teacher salaries (Ramin 2000a). The government did pay 1,583 community school teachers (1 per school) about $35 per month for 5 months in the 2000 school year. In 2001, funds were budgeted to pay the same amount for an additional 1,206 teachers, bringing the total government support to 2,789 community school teachers (out of about 5,000). Although government support is critical, equity issues are arising since not all teachers are being paid by the government (Devine 2001; Prouty 2001; Ramin 2001b).

The decentralization of education in Mali was also furthered through PISE as the Government of Mali agreed to transfer responsibilities and resources to communities and local administrations over the next four years (Ramin 2000a). The World Bank sought to have local government pay the community school teachers (Prouty 2001). Some education experts feel commune education budgets should be shared with community schools though others debate about whether and how this should happen. Ramin (2001a) notes that some commune councils are beginning to support community schools and Africare/Mali (2001) reports that communes have become partners in their schools; they provide furniture, textbooks, and even help with construction.

Evaluations of both World Education and Africare-supported schools showed that students had better results than those in public schools, and World Education community school students pass the end-of-primary exam at a higher rate than their government school counterparts. Community schools in Mali have positively impacted the public school system in that the Ministry of Education now requires the community to manage all schools; has agreed to support new schools, provide books, train and pay teachers; is preparing national guidelines on community management of schools; and is gradually integrating community schools into the national system (Ramin 2001a, 2001b).

Togo

Community schools in Togo began in the colonial period, but were referred to by the government as "clandestine" schools until 1995. In 1997, community schools received institutional recognition in Togo as *écoles d'initiative locale* (EDIL). Once they were recognized, inspectors were told to count them as exhaustively as possible, to bring teachers to formal training sessions, and to give them material assistance where possible. Where they have existed for some years and have enough students to be considered important, inspectors could name a teacher to direct the school. The 1996-97 school census was the first to count community schools. EDIL don't yet have a legal status, so they resemble public primary schools from which they borrow curricula, textbooks, and teaching methods. Because schools must identify themselves to the education inspection service to be recognized, probably many more community schools exist in Togo than those recognized.

In 1998-99, community schools in Togo totaled 929, enrolled 8.71 percent of children, and comprised nearly 20 percent of all primary schools. The Direction générale de la planification de l'éducation (DGPE) estimated that in 2000, more than 1,000 community schools would enroll at least 10 percent of children. Most community schools do not yet have a complete cycle of primary grades. EDIL also have the least qualified teachers of any type of school type in Togo; most teachers do not have a degree but only a primary level certificate. EDIL have fewer textbooks per student than public schools.

Several NGOS (both international and local) have invested in community schools: Aide et Action; Born Fonded; Plan International; Association Village Enterprise; Monde des Enfants vers les Enfants du Monde (MEEM) (this association is linked to a Catholic mission); Arc en Ciel; and COSEDOR (Complexe scolaire des enfants déshérités et orphelins). Christian missions are very active in the plateau and savannah regions.

The administrative and teaching structures vary between community schools, but they can be divided into three categories: those initiated and helped by religious groups and NGOs; those initiated and helped by the local communities themselves without external aid; and those where the government names and pays a school director. A World Bank program (PAGED) that financed teacher recruitment and training at the primary level permitted inspectors to appoint directors to the most important EDIL. These directors became efficient pedagogic and financial support to these schools because they taught classes and trained other teachers recruited and paid for by the school management committees. In 1998, EDIL with directors were transformed into public schools, but, to lower expectations and avoid unsustainable future costs, the Minister of Education ruled that, in future, appointing a government director would not change the status of community schools. **Nevertheless, a government-appointed director brings improved administrative monitoring to the school as well as better organized teaching, regular inspection visits, and access to textbooks, teaching materials, and training.**

The majority of EDIL do not receive pedagogical or financial support from the state; they lack teacher training and follow-up, and help with teaching materials, and rarely receive visits from pedagogical counselors. Textbooks, also furnished by the IEPD, are rare. With the exception of

the books that they do receive, these schools are financed through the fees paid by students' parents.

The community designates a management committee or a parents' committee to manage EDIL. These *Comites de parents d'élèves* (CPE) are largely modeled on the APEs at public schools, but they have different roles. The CPE is entirely responsible for creating, financing, and managing of the school. Typical CPE activities involve: mobilizing parents to send their children to school, recruiting students, collecting fees, recruiting and paying teachers, building and maintaining classrooms, financing school furniture, and bringing parents together for meetings.

Parents of community schools students want the equivalent of public education in terms of curriculum, teaching methods, exams, schedule, etc., so that students can continue to secondary school easily. EDIL student exam results have been comparable to public schools. Fifty-three percent of EDIL students passed the *Certificat d'études du premier degré* (CEPD) exam while nationally 60 percent did, but only 797 EDIL candidates sat the exam.

It is clear that villages and families cannot manage the burden of a complete six-grade school. Unless they are assisted, schools may close and teachers will quit their jobs. Gbogbotchi et al. (2000) recommend that the Government of Togo hire a director paid by the state for each school, recruit and train enough pedagogical counselors to supervise EDIL, encourage partnerships between EDIL and nearby public schools, give CPE a subsidy to help them pay teachers, encourage EDIL teachers to pass professional exams, provide enough textbooks for students, and give all students the possibility to rent textbooks. EDIL also need a specific legal statute.

Senegal

Including the *écoles communautaire de base* (ECB) of Senegal in this review is difficult as they are considered nonformal education. But in Senegal's campaign for universal basic education, students who graduate from ECBs are, in theory, allowed to pass into the public school system.

In Senegal, ECBs are a government-NGO partnership. The ECB model was introduced by 3 NGOs in the 1990s: ADEF-Afrique in 1993; Aide et Action in 1994-95; and Plan International in 1996. ECBs enroll 9- to 14-year olds and are designed for public school dropouts or those who have never attended school at all. The system increases access to basic education and offers an education that contributes to community development. The three objectives for these schools are: to give training that links school to life, theory to practice, and teaching to production (preparing students for professional or working life); to adapt the content and methods of teaching to the specific needs of students; and to establish ways of passing between the different types and stages of education (e.g., transferring from an ECB into the public school system). In the 1998-99 school year, 304 ECB made up 1.9 percent of public schools, and enrolled 9,569 students.

In 1996, the Government of Senegal instituted the Projet d'appui au plan d'action (PAPA) under the Ministry of Basic Education and National Languages, financed by CIDA. Many of the ECBs are financed through PAPA. Each school is supported technically and financially, most often by an NGO called an operator. The first generation of PAPA included 12 operators and 60 schools and the second generation 27 operators and 140 schools. Other groups, not funded through PAPA, established 116 additional classes in 1998. While communities or operators design and implement programs, Ministry of Education services provide technical assistance and orient, motivate, collect data, plan, coordinate, and monitor and evaluate of field activities. Because the regional and departmental inspection offices propose implementation sites that conform to the school map, people are confused as to whether the ECBs, targeted at 9-14 year olds, complement public primary schools or substitute for public schools that should welcome all school-age children.

ECBs have a 4-year cycle and teaching is principally in local languages; French is introduced in the third year. One part of the curriculum is devoted to practical skills. Each village has income-generating activities put in place under the management committee. Teachers are considered volunteers and paid 50,000 FCFA per month under public PAPA funds in the majority of cases, or, more rarely, by NGO operators with their own funds. Operators pay for the school, and oversee recruiting, training, and supervising the teaching volunteer. PAPA takes care of the initial and in-service training for 200 ECB teachers, pays these teachers and their supervisors, buys textbooks, and gives institutional support to operators. Though PAPA pays for textbooks, the production of textbooks in local languages is behind schedule and so some operators (ADEF-Afrique, Plan International, Aide et Action) developed their own for the first generations of ECBs. At the end of 1999, 27 government inspectors monitored the ECBs.

In the ECBs financed by PAPA, communities determine curriculum, construct and manage the school, and determine the school calendar. A school management committee and sometimes a *cellule école-milieu* (a broader body made up of local authorities, the management committee,

teachers, resource persons representing an organization or traditional chiefs, civil servants, NGO animators, leaders of women's groups, etc.) manage the school, monitor the students and teacher, implement income-generating activities, collect school fees, and mobilize human resources. Responsibilities for the ECB are transferred to the community over four years. Theoretically, the NGO retires at the end of the fourth year if the system is operational. Then supervision and monitoring would take place from a distance for up to two years, time to make any necessary corrections.

Only one ECB cycle has been completed to date so the experiment is not easy to evaluate. The dropout rate for these schools is quite high (10-33% depending on the school). Competence tests were given to both the first and second generations of schools. The results improved from the first year to the second (1999) but math results remained very weak. Of the three options for ECB graduates (living in their village, getting professional training, or entering public middle schools), most operators stress the first two, which are the government's main goals for the ECBs. A smaller number of operators give priority to passing into middle school and in these cases, French is introduced earlier, for two years of French is insufficient to obtain the level required by the exam. For example, Aide et Action reported that only 1 student out of 103 candidates passed the June 1999 *Certificat de fin d'études elementaires* (CFEE) exam because of weak French.

In general, villages want a traditional primary school, but where none exists, they accept an ECB. In several regions, the ECBs are more popular than public schools, partly because parents are very concerned about Muslim education (and the ECBs have added religious studies) and are against non-religious public schools. However, the overall credibility of the model has not yet been established: the buildings remain precarious; ECBs have no clear legal status and do not award final certificates; and students are not yet able to pass into middle school. The income-generating activities are, in practice, difficult to master, particularly as the seed money given is too little. Communities are poor and have difficulty raising the money to pay education volunteers.

Are ECBs provisionary measures, necessary because the formal system cannot hold all students, or are they an alternative educational system? The Government of Senegal, as part of its ten-year plan, assumes that ECBs will be unnecessary in 2010 when universal basic education has been reached. **Clemons (2001) views the ECBs as a cost-saving rather than an educational model and found that donors and NGOs carried much of the cost burden even for areas supposedly funded by the State**. Another question is the target age: should ECBs enroll younger school-age children when no other school is nearby (Diarra et al. 2000).

Diarra et al. (2000) recommend that ECBs be recognized as an official educational offering so they are no longer seen as an experiment. Local committees would still manage the schools and the Ministry would still pay the volunteer. While it is unreasonable to expect that the education volunteers can become state employees, they are envisioned as being employed under the decentralized communes.

Ethiopia

In 1999, 45.8 percent of children in Ethiopia were enrolled in primary school, with lower enrollment rates for girls and rural children (FDRE Office of Government Spokesperson 1999; USAID/Ethiopia n.d.). With such a weak basic education system, donors such as USAID and the World Bank are working with the Ethiopia government to reform the education system and these endeavors include community management and financing of education. USAID's Basic Education System Overhaul (BESO) project is having communities increasingly take over the management of their schools as part of the process of decentralization and educational reform (USAID 2001). The World Bank is a key funder of the five-year Education Sector Development Plan, begun in 1998, that has goals of expanding access to education with special emphasis on primary education in rural areas:

- raising enrollment from 3.1 million to 7 million, and increasing the primary enrollment ratio from 30 to 50 percent;
- improving equity by improving enrollment ratios for disadvantaged groups: increasing girls' enrollment from 38 to 45 percent, and increasing rural relative to urban enrollment;
- improving efficiency of the education system by reducing dropout and repetition rates;
- improving quality and relevance by providing books and by curriculum improvements and teacher training; and
- improving financing for education by increasing public spending on education from 3.8 to 4.6 percent of GDP and facilitating private sector and community financing of education (World Bank 1998).

Ethiopia has over 1,600 community schools (Wolf 2000; Rowley 2001; Sime 2001; Save the Children n.d.b; Leu 2002). USAID is supporting community management of over 1,250 schools in two regions, with World Learning and Tigray Development Association (Rowley 2001; Leu 2002). ActionAid Ethiopia supports over 220 ACCESS centers which function as feeder schools for public schools and Save the Children/Ethiopia supports 48 schools (Sime 2001; Save the Children n.d.b).

Traditionally, the government has been distant from local schools. Rowley (n.d.a) says that textbooks, instructional materials, teaching guides, pay and non-recurrent costs have been very low. Community schools programs have seen an increase in support from local government officials at both the Woreda and Zone (the next administrative level) levels, though on an individual basis it seems rather than through a central policy directive. Woreda officials choose which public schools will participate in the BESO Community School (or school grants) program and often provide materials for school improvement. The development of ACCESS center community schools is undertaken as a regular part of the education work of the Zone and Woreda officials in one zone. They formulate and prepare the project proposals, implement the project, coordinate, supervise monitor, and evaluate it. Teacher training institutes and high school teachers are responsible for training ACCESS center facilitators and assisting in developing course materials (North Showa Zone Education Department 2000).

Chad

Ecoles spontanées, as community schools are referred to in Chad, are created and financed by village communities to make up for the absence of public schools. They are mostly in rural areas and were created as a result of the political and military upheaval in the last 20-30 years, that reduced the effectiveness of government intervention in education. *Ecoles spontanées* that exist in towns provide an alternative to public establishments, by their better conditions or quality of teaching. In 1960, no community schools existed in Chad and only few had been established by 1969. Most burst onto the scene in the 1980s and in the early 1990s and by 1991-92 there were 547 that enrolled 53,000 students, about 9 percent of total enrollment.

While 15 percent of first grade students were enrolled in *écoles spontanées* in 1991-92, the percentage fell with each grade: 12.4 percent of second graders up to 0.2 percent of sixth graders. Many of the *écoles spontanées* only offer the first few years of primary school. These schools had a higher dropout rate in every year than all other types of schools and a lower promotion rate from year to year than all other schools in 1990-91. Their results remain mediocre as teacher are not qualified (62% had not completed 9th grade and only 14 out of 929 had had pre-service training), buildings are rudimentary, and very few textbooks exist (1 for every 7 students in 1991-92). Most teachers are paid by parents, though in a few cases, government employee teachers have been made available. These schools get relatively little support or supervision from Ministry inspectors.

Villages who financed these schools are hoping that the government will take them over and supply trained teachers. The communities also need help with infrastructure, teaching and learning materials, and textbooks. The government is not in a position to aid these schools and Ministry of Education officials do not encourage their proliferation because of their poor quality teaching. Community school parents, however, are just as satisfied as other parents because they appreciate having a school in their community even though the schools are poorly furnished and lack resources and quality.

While Chad has legal statutes on how private schools are established and authorized by the State, and defines the responsibilities of the school and the State, none of these regulations seem to apply to community schools. Esquieu and Péano (1994) felt that the State needed to give communities the right to create schools and create a regulatory framework for the State to oversee the school map and the quality of teaching. Of the different private schools in Chad, *écoles spontanées* have the strongest potential for expansion but they must be more organized, have trained teachers, and be recognized and supported by the State (Esquieu and Péano 1994).

ANNEX 2:
Community school program summaries

Country: BENIN

Implementor: World Education (funding from USAID)

Type of intervention: Increase involvement and role of civil society in management of formal education systems (strengthening APEs) in existing schools

No. and location of schools: 1,217 APEs in all areas of country

Type of school management: APE (elected)

Relation to public education system: Schools are part of public system

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Elect APEAE board ▪ Manage school bank account ▪ Manage day-to-day running of schools ▪ Provide labor/materials for building infrastructure ▪ Often provide books and supplies when govt. cannot ▪ Pay a number of volunteer or community contract teachers	*Local NGOs:* ▪ Provide field support agents to APEs and federations of APEs ▪ Fund school infrastructure construction *World Education:* ▪ Provide technical support to APEs ▪ Provide funds for school infrastructure construction ▪ Establish school canteens in conjunction with the WFP ▪ Provide support person for canteen management ▪ Collaborate with communities on income-generating activities in a few schools	▪ Provide school buildings ▪ Supply and pay teachers ▪ Supply textbooks	*Curriculum:* Govt. *Teacher training:* Govt. *Teacher support/supervision:* Govt. *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* Govt. *School maintenance:* Community

Country: BURKINA FASO

Implementor: Save the Children (funding from sponsorship, Dutch government, Merrill Lynch, and Save the Children/Netherlands)

Type of intervention: Create community schools and support government schools

No. and location of schools: 23 schools in Bazéga province

Type of school management: School management committees

Relation to public education system: No information available.

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
No information available.	• Construct schools • Equip schools with furniture • Construct teacher housing • Train school management committees • Give pre- and in-service teacher training • Develop curriculum and teaching manuals • Provide teaching and learning materials and equipment	• Sponsor community school intervention	*Curriculum:* Save the Children *Teacher training:* Save the Children *Teacher support/supervision:* No information available. *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* Save the Children *School maintenance:* No information available.

Country: ETHIOPIA

Implementor: World Learning (funding from USAID) (BESO/Community Schools Activity Program)

Type of intervention: Provide resources to School Management Committees to mobilize communities and to improve school quality in existing schools

No. and location of schools: 720 in SNNP region

Type of school management: School Management Committees composed of community members, one teacher, and the head teacher

Relation to public education system: Target schools are in the public education system.

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Organize School Committee ▪ Develop strategic plan ▪ Hold community openhouses about work at school ▪ Raise funds and other materials for construction and other projects ▪ Build classrooms, libraries, desks, pedagogical centers, and teacher housing ▪ Write professional code of conduct for teachers and school staff ▪ Write instructional objectives for lower grades ▪ Purchase books, blackboards, learning materials (with grants) ▪ Seek and often pay for in-service teacher training from district or other trainers (with grants) ▪ Have parents contribute a small amount in school fees ▪ Run income-generating schemes at schools	▪ Offer orientation workshops to introduce new schools to program or to advance participating schools ▪ Supply School Development Agent to train the School Management Committee and support them ▪ Give grants to school committees ▪ Provide training for School Management Committee members ▪ Alert local officials when land or budget problems arise ▪ Provide occasional opportunities for School Committee Members to visit other schools in other zones ▪ Provide travel tours and other training to build capacity of local government and education officials ▪ Provide manuals and guidelines to schools and school development agents about the	▪ Officials attend orientation workshops ▪ District education officers select schools to participate in program ▪ Zone and regional officials decide which schools advance to higher stages of program ▪ Supplying building materials and administrative support ▪ Visit schools at opening and closing, but do not inspect/supervise	*Curriculum:* Govt. *Teacher training:* Community often pays for training by govt. or other trainer *Teacher support/supervision:* Within school itself (head teacher/ head) *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* Govt., community (through grants) *School maintenance:* Community

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Monitor attendance of teachers and students on campus ▪ Develop a Girls Advisory Committee to follow-up and advise girls who are dropping out ▪ Many communities take turns guarding school grounds ▪ Others take turns escorting girls to school to keep them from being abducted ▪ Many schools raise awareness on education in churches, mosques and markets ▪ Several schools train girls in embroidery to raise money in a safe way ▪ Provide experts to assist teachers in delivering relevant lessons to students about the local economy, culture, and society ▪ Involve indigenous institutions such as Idir (a local system to support families in times of crisis and need, e.g. funerals, etc.) and religious organizations to support the local school	program		

Country: ETHIOPIA

Implementor: Tigray Development Association (funding from USAID through BESO/Community Schools Activity Program)

Type of intervention: Provide resources to School Committees to mobilize communities to improve school quality in existing schools

No. and location of schools: 585 in Tigray region

Type of school management: School Committee (appointed)

Relation to public education system: Schools are public schools.

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Organize School Committee ▪ Develop strategic plan ▪ Build schools ▪ Implement quality improvement projects ▪ Establish pedagogical centers ▪ Construct reading rooms and teachers' residences ▪ Write professional code of conduct for teachers and school staff ▪ Write instructional objectives for lower grades ▪ Purchase books, blackboards, learning materials (with grants) ▪ Seek and often pay for in-service teacher training from district or other trainers (with grants) ▪ Award incentives to high-achieving girls	▪ Offer orientation workshops to introduce new schools to program or to advance participating schools ▪ Supply School Development Agent to train the School Management Committee and support them ▪ Give grants to school committees ▪ Provide manuals and guidelines to schools and school development agents about the program	▪ Provide pre- and in-service teacher training ▪ Woreda education officers supervise and support teachers ▪ Provide textbooks and teaching materials ▪ District education officers select schools to participate in program ▪ Zone and regional officials decide which schools advance to higher stages of program	*Curriculum:* Govt. *Teacher training:* Govt. *Teacher support/supervision:* Govt. and school directors *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* Govt. *School maintenance:* Community

Country: ETHIOPIA

Implementor: ActionAid Ethiopia (funding from Comic Relief, Azione Aiuto, and child sponsors in Europe)

Type of intervention: Provide access to basic primary education for out-of-school children in urban and remote rural areas through creating schools

No. and location of schools: Over 220 ACCESS centers in 6 regions (Amhara, Oromiya, Southern Ethiopia, Tigray, Afar and Addis Ababa)

Type of school management: Education Management Committee (elected)

Relation to public education system: Schools are expected to be integrated into public system and serve as feeder schools.

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Elect Education Management Committee members and manage the project ▪ Actively participate in the preparation of education action plans ▪ Provide available rooms or simple structures for centers ▪ Provide land for construction of center if building doesn't exist ▪ Provide labor and materials for construction ▪ Maintain buildings ▪ Set schedule for classes and academic calendar ▪ Select and support teachers (volunteers get a small honorarium) ▪ Manage and control program as a whole ▪ Monitor and evaluate project	▪ Conduct PRA exercises with villages to identify and prioritize their education problems ▪ Provide funds for refurbishing or constructing infrastructure ▪ Develop a training package to train facilitators/teachers ▪ Provide project coordinator for each Woreda ▪ Provide funds for textbooks and teaching materials ▪ Ensure that routine exchange of experience and self-training meetings are held on time ▪ Build local capacity to enable people to manage the project effectively (train Committees and others) ▪ Monitor and evaluate project ▪ Assist and facilitate adapting and localizing curriculum ▪ Empower local communities and government bodies to sustain project	▪ Participate in project implementation and coordination of activities at local level ▪ Organize teacher training institute staff and government secondary school teachers; provide initial and refresher training to facilitators/teachers ▪ Provide technical support to education management committee ▪ Prepare syllabi and minimum learning outcomes ▪ form curriculum core team from Zone Education Department and existing institutions in the zone to develop facilitation manuals and workbooks ▪ Provide regular supervision for project coordinators and facilitators/teachers ▪ Monitor and evaluate project activities	*Curriculum:* Zone and woreda education officers and teacher training institutes and ActionAid *Teacher training:* Govt. teacher training institutes and zonal and regional officials *Teacher support/supervision:* Govt. and ActionAid *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* Govt. and ActionAid *School maintenance:* Community

Country: GAMBIA

Implementor: ActionAid Gambia

Type of intervention: Provide access to education through creating schools/centers

No. and location of schools: 27 in Central River Division

Type of school management: Center Committee

Relation to public education system: Not part of public school system

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Hire facilitators ▪ Provide physical structure for classes	▪ Provide teaching and learning materials ▪ Pay facilitators monthly allowances ▪ Give periodic training to center facilitators ▪ Train Center Committee periodically ▪ Supervise center facilitators ▪ Create linkages between center and nearest primary school for transition of pupils into formal school ▪ Create linkages with the staff of the Regional Education Office and inform them of the existence of centers ▪ Provide building materials when communities decide to erect permanent structures for the centers	▪ Provide expertise to train Center Committees through Regional Education Offices	*Curriculum:* No information available. *Teacher training:* ActionAid *Teacher support/supervision:* ActionAid *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* ActionAid *School maintenance:* Community

Country: GHANA

Implementor: CARE (SCORE Project)

Type of intervention: Improve quality of primary education to decrease marginalization of girls in existing schools

No. and location of schools: 29 in Wassa West district

Type of school management: School Management Committees/ Parent-Teacher Associations

Relation to public education system: Project takes place in government schools

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ SMCs and PTAs impose community levies for construction and maintenance of school infrastructure ▪ Provide local construction materials and construct buildings ▪ Monitor teacher and student attendance ▪ Report teacher problems to supervisors ▪ Have parents provide stationary and uniforms to pupils ▪ Provide free accommodations and food for sporting events ▪ Organize open days and education weeks which have mobilized the communities and raised funds ▪ Write proposal to outside source for funding for new buildings ▪ PTAs have gotten payment of outstanding fees, temporarily repaired the school office, gotten extra classes in progress, promised to hire a carpenter to	▪ Train teachers and head teachers in participatory approaches, gender issues, child centered methodologies, and development of instructional materials ▪ Provide materials for the construction and renovation of school (roofing materials, cement and nails) ▪ Establish and train PRA teams in communities ▪ Train PTA and SMC members ▪ Develop T-shirts, posters and videos promoting girls' education ▪ Conduct workshop on supervisory practices for circuit supervisors and head teachers ▪ Organize study tour for pupils and teachers to look at benefits of education ▪ Provide scholarships for girls who come highest in their class ▪ Provide financial and logistical assistance to District Education	▪ Supply and pay teachers ▪ Supply curriculum ▪ Supervise teachers ▪ District assembly gave furniture and additional teachers to a school	*Curriculum:* Govt. *Teacher training:* CARE *Teacher support/supervision:* Govt. *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* Teachers, govt. *School maintenance:* Community

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
build more tables and chairs, asked parents to buy textbooks for children, laid bricks for toilets ▪ Community members have provided tables and chairs and lamps for evening study ▪ One community developed income-generating crops for school ▪ Some parents shifted girls' workload from morning to afternoon ▪ One community recruited and pays nursery school teachers	Office for school supervision		

Country: GHANA

Implementor: Education Development Center with Save the Children/US and CARE International through QUIPS/Community School Alliances program) (funded by USAID)

Type of intervention: Engage in community mobilization to improve community participation in Ghanaian public primary schools

No. and location of schools: 297 school-committees in 7 regions of Ghana

Type of school management: School Management Committees/ Parent-Teacher Associations

Relation to public education system: Public schools

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Develop and implement community-school improvement plans ▪ Conduct drama and hold forum as part of education mobilization campaign ▪ Develop grant proposal for EDC ▪ Raise money to go along with grant ▪ Purchase school supplies such as textbooks, school furniture, teaching and learning materials, sports equipment, school vehicle, transportation for supplies (with grant and community funds) ▪ Monitor student attendance and absenteeism (in some schools) ▪ Supply communal labor for building or rehabilitation projects ▪ Have parents pay school fees ▪ Some communities/parents have given teachers incentives such as foodstuffs or paid extra for additional hours of teaching	▪ Mobilize community through data collection and PRA/PLA ▪ Hold capacity building workshops for school management committees and PTAs ▪ Give grants to communities for projects ▪ Provide facilitator to community to support their efforts ▪ Develop training manual for community facilitator ▪ Coordinate and support radio programs in 7 radio stations in each region to share the programs best practices and raise awareness of the importance of community involvement in education ▪ Build capacity within the Ghana Education Service to continue community mobilization activities after project ends	▪ Provide Education Service staff for data collection ▪ Provide school buildings ▪ Supply and pay teachers ▪ Supply textbooks	*Curriculum:* Govt. *Teacher training:* Government and AED through ILP project *Teacher support/supervision:* Govt. *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* Government and community *School maintenance:* Community and AED through ILP project

Country: GHANA

Implementor: UNICEF (funding from CIDA and Irish Aid) (Childscope project)

Type of intervention: Develop a sustainable model for providing quality basic education in rural communities of Ghana, working with existing schools

No. and location of schools: 21 schools in 76 communities in Afram Plains

Type of school management: Parent-Teacher Associations

Relation to public education system: Schools are part of the public school system

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Rebuilt school buildings, classrooms, teacher house, latrines, football field, roads ▪ Provided labor for building infrastructure ▪ Reduced child labor ▪ Made recommendations to DEO on teachers; request transfers or returns of teachers and headteachers ▪ Support communal labor and raise funds through women's groups ▪ 2 communities organized preschools, support preschool teachers ▪ Some communities provided furniture or set up canteens for schools	*UNICEF:* • Initiated research on girl child with APDO and communities ▪ Provided technical and management oversight ▪ Monitored and evaluated project ▪ Provided materials/funding for construction of schools infrastructure ▪ Procured bicycles for all Afram Plains teachers to purchase at a subsidized rate, through MoE ▪ Provided some instructional materials and exercise books for pupils *Afram Plains Development Organization:* ▪ Organized and carried out the interactions that catalyzed village dialogue, analysis and problem solving ▪ Managed field activities and training of village facilitators ▪ Purchased truck for transporting	▪ District Education Office allocated staff to project ▪ Hired, paid and supervised teachers ▪ Provided school supplies ▪ District Assembly provided financial support to project for infrastructure improvements, fuel and travel costs to support project in new sites, and support for workshops (food and accommodations) ▪ Established District Advisory Committee for project	*Curriculum:* Govt. *Teacher training:* Government *Teacher support/supervision:* Govt. *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* Government *School maintenance:* Community, UNICEF

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
	materials to community ▪ Provided 5 hand-operated brick making machines		

Country: GUINEA

Implementor: World Education (funding from USAID)

Type of intervention: Strengthen APEs and improve access, quality, and equity in educationally neglected area, working with existing schools

No. and location of schools: 227 APEAEs in Fouta Djalon

Type of school management: APEAE (elected)

Relation to public education system: Schools are part of the public system

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Elect APEAE board ▪ Support school construction (provide labor, supplies and tools) and maintenance ▪ Pay community contract teachers ▪ Provide books and supplies when govt. can not ▪ One monitors student results and another plans to build a school store to sell school supplies	*Local NGOs:* ▪ Provide training to APEAEs *World Education:* ▪ Strengthen and build capacity of local NGOs ▪ Implement adult literacy programs ▪ Make small grants to community for school projects ▪ Train trainers for APEAE federation	▪ Provide curriculum ▪ Pay teachers ▪ Provide textbooks ▪ Legalize community schools	*Curriculum:* Govt. *Teacher training:* Govt *Teacher support/supervision:* Govt. *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* Govt. *School maintenance:* Community

Country: GUINEA

Implementor: Save the Children/USA (funding from USAID)

Type of intervention: Improve educational access and quality through constructing new schools and improving school management in existing schools

No. and location of schools: 27 schools (20 community schools and 7 public schools) in Mandiana Prefecture

Type of school management: APEAE (appointed)

Relation to public education system: Considered part of public education system

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Support school construction (provide labor, supplies and tools) and maintenance ▪ Provide school furniture (table/benches for students) ▪ Assist with teacher recruitment ▪ Pay for upkeep (lodging and food) of teachers, often in-kind ▪ Monitor student and teacher attendance ▪ Manage finances of school, setting fees where needed ▪ Undertake income-generating activities for teacher support ▪ Some villages offered additional literacy classes to children not enrolled in schools	*Local NGOs:* ▪ Train APEAEs ▪ Assist in building schools ▪ Implement adult literacy programs ▪ Mobilize community *Save the Children:* ▪ Mobilize community around benefits of education ▪ Train APEAEs ▪ Assist in building schools ▪ Implement adult literacy programs ▪ Train local NGOs and their facilitators to support schools ▪ Provide logistical help to District to monitor schools ▪ Provide furniture for first 4 schools	▪ Assist with teacher recruitment ▪ Pay teachers ▪ Provide teacher training ▪ Provide textbooks ▪ Monitor teachers/schools	*Curriculum:* Govt. *Teacher training:* Govt *Teacher support/supervision:* Govt. *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* Govt. *School maintenance:* Communities

Country: KENYA

Implementor: ActionAid Kenya (funding from DfID)

Type of intervention: Enhance access to education by establishing schools

No. and location of schools: Mwingi District in Eastern Province, Malindi District in Coast Province and Samburu District in Rift Valley Province

Type of school management: School committee

Relation to public education system: No information available

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Initiate projects by asking ActionAid for support ▪ Hold mobilization forums to enroll children in centers ▪ Elect committee to manage feeder school ▪ Undertake routine management of schools ▪ Consult in developing local curriculum ▪ Pay salaries of preschool teachers	▪ Support design and development of appropriate curriculum in local languages and corresponding teaching and learning materials ▪ Sensitize community on benefits of basic education ▪ Facilitate school mapping exercises to establish appropriate distances to schools ▪ Train teachers ▪ Advocate for teacher deployment by MOE ▪ Support establishment of basic physical facilities	▪ Use official curriculum in 2 districts ▪ Provide resource persons for development of local curriculum ▪ Pilot alternative curriculum developed in formal schools ▪ Give children who complete feeder school right to enter mother school ▪ Provide regular govt. trained teachers to schools in one district and negotiations underway to make this happen in others districts ▪ Establishment of feeder schools ▪ Conduct routine inspections and offers advisory services ▪ Public "mother school" sends in monthly reports on feeder school	*Curriculum:* Govt. and ActionAid *Teacher training:* ActionAid and govt *Teacher support/supervision:* Govt. *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* Govt. and ActionAid *School maintenance:* No information available.

Country: MALAWI

Implementor: Save the Children (funding from sponsorship, USAID, UNICEF, NORAD, Redd Barna, and Ross)

Type of intervention: Start village-based schools to improve access

No. and location of schools: 24 in Mangochi and Machinga Districts (plans for 33 more under QUEST)

Type of school management: School Management Committee

Relation to public education system: No information available.

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Provide school buildings (bricks, labor) ▪ Select teacher ▪ Assist teacher to create locally made learning and teaching materials ▪ Provide general oversight of school ▪ Monitor student attendance ▪ Monitor teacher performance	▪ Train village teachers ▪ Abbreviate govt. curriculum ▪ Supervise teachers ▪ Provide in-service training for teachers ▪ Provide locally based supervisor for teachers ▪ Train school management committee ▪ Draft community participation handbook ▪ Pay teachers for the first year ▪ Provide textbooks in short supply ▪ Provide exercise books, chalk, blackboards, teaching materials like pens and charts ▪ Provide fertilizer or seedling for school maize plots or wood lots ▪ Give supervision training to primary education assistants ▪ Supply stationary to school committees	▪ Draft community participation handbook ▪ Provide textbooks, instructional materials for students and teachers ▪ Provide resource persons for training and supervision of project teachers ▪ Incorporate some community teachers with higher schooling level into govt. budget ▪ Pay teachers in second year if possible	*Curriculum:* Save *Teacher training:* Save, government *Teacher support/supervision:* Save *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* Govt., Save and teachers *School maintenance:* Community

Country: MALAWI

Implementor: World Bank

Type of intervention: Construct primary education classrooms

No. and location of schools: 1,600 classrooms constructed

Type of school management: No information available.

Relation to public education system: Public schools

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Select school sites and prepared them for construction ▪ Build classroom shells ▪ Take part in orientation workshops	▪ Finance participation of NGOs as resource persons for training and capacity building at the community level and provide technical assistance for community mobilization	▪ Select communities where schools would be built ▪ Conduct 2 to 3 day orientation sessions for key officials from each district and community leaders	*Curriculum:* Govt. *Teacher training:* Govt. *Teacher support/supervision:* Govt. *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* Govt. *School maintenance:* No information available

Country: MALI

Implementor: Save the Children – US (funding from USAID and sponsorship)

Type of intervention: Intervene in communities to start community or village school

No. and location of schools : 786 in Sikasso region

Type of school management: Run by school management committee (SMC) from community – members usually designated

Relation to public education system: Recognized as private schools by Ministry; integrated into public education system

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Provide local materials, construct, and maintain school building ▪ Select management committee ▪ Recruit and pay teachers (fees from parents and village council contributions) ▪ Recruit students ▪ Collect fees ▪ Manage school ▪ Participate in developing life-skills curriculum ▪ Monitor teachers' and students' attendance ▪ Control school schedule ▪ Educate community on value of education ▪ Gradually pay for an increasing percentage of school supplies until paying for in fifth year ▪ Parents pay part of costs of books in some cases	*SCF & Malian partner NGOs:* ▪ Mobilize/organize community to establish school ▪ Participate in developing curriculum ▪ Train school management committee ▪ Monitor and supervise schools and teachers (weekly visits by animator) ▪ Collaborate with Malian ed. administration ▪ Organize training and in-service training sessions for teachers ▪ Begin to create federations of SMCs *Save the Children:* ▪ Support national NGOs ▪ Supply roofs, doors, windows, and engineering team for building construction ▪ Finance desk and chair for teacher, cupboard, and student benches ▪ Conduct literacy training in village ▪ Pay for curriculum development and teacher training	▪ Authorize development of community school ▪ Assist in developing curriculum (paid for by SCF) ▪ Conduct training and in-service training for teachers (often paid by Save); ▪ Monitor and supervise schools (few schools get inspected) ▪ Assist with moving students into formal schools ▪ Invite teachers to annual pedagogical conference ▪ Organize 6th grade exams ▪ Provide school books as available ▪ Provide CFA 25,000 towards teacher salary	*Curriculum:* Collaboration between Save and CNE (Centre National d'Education) *Teacher training:* Collaboration between SCF, CNE, and local NGOs *Teacher support/supervision:* SCF, local education inspections (CAP), national NGOs *Supply of textbooks and teaching materials:* Save the Children and CAP *School maintenance:* Community

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
	▪ Organize teacher training sessions ▪ Supply teaching and classroom materials (chalk, pens, pencils, slates, rulers, exercise books, textbooks; blackboard, lamps) in the first year of the school and smaller percentages (75%, 50%, 25%, 0%) in each following year ▪ Monitor and supervise schools and visit teachers weekly ▪ Collaborate with and aid Malian educational administration and inspections ▪ Supply motorcycles to govt. inspectors ▪ Provide logistical and materials support for grade six exams		

Country: MALI

Implementor: World Education (funding from USAID)

Type of intervention: Organize villages to create APEs and work with existing APEs to develop civil society; support new schools that are developed by APEs

No. and location of schools : 676 APEs in Koulikoro and Segou regions and in district of Bamako

Type of school management: APE committee (elected)

Relation to public education system: Recognized as private schools, but full participants in most government educational services (also work with APEs of formal govt. schools)

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Construct and maintain school ▪ Provide local materials for construction and procure other materials for construction; ▪ Manage school start-up fund ▪ Procure furniture for classroom ▪ Parents provide students with materials and usually textbooks ▪ Recruit and pay teacher ▪ Pay school operation expenses ▪ Recruit students ▪ Collect fees ▪ Manage school ▪ Pay travel and per diem costs for teacher to attend training ▪ Establish contact with Ministry ▪ Raise money in the village and from external sources	*Malian NGOs:* ▪ Mobilize community to establish school ▪ Train APE committee members ▪ Provide ongoing support to APE ▪ Organize teacher training ▪ Advocate for parents and APEs at all levels of education system ▪ Collect data for program monitoring ▪ Support federations of APEs *World Education:* ▪ Provide $4,000 start-up fund to newly created school ▪ Support and train local NGOs ▪ Pay for teacher training materials	▪ Test teacher if qualifications in doubt ▪ Inspect school (visits 2-4 times a year) ▪ Provide in-service and pre-service teacher training ▪ Organize 6th grade exam ▪ Pay equivalent of one teacher for each community school in 2000	*Curriculum:* Government *Teacher training:* Organized by NGO and given by govt. *Teacher support/supervision:* Government *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* Government *School maintenance:* Community

Country: MALI

Implementor: Africare (funding from USAID)

Type of intervention: Help youth to improve the quality of their lives through creating new schools

No. and location of schools : 80 in Segou region

Type of school management: APE committee

Relation to public education system: Considered as private schools, but full participants in most government educational services

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Construct and maintain school (provide local materials and procuring others for construction) ▪ Recruit and pay teacher ▪ Provide some funding for classroom construction ▪ Procure furniture for classroom ▪ Have parents provide students with materials ▪ Recruit students ▪ Collect fees ▪ Manage school and pay operation expenses ▪ Pay travel and per diem costs for teacher to attend training ▪ Pay for books in 3rd year of operation (some communities did provide teacher guides for grade 3; 2 villages provided a few books for students) ▪ Mobilize community around education ▪ Get legal documents for school opening and obtain students birth certificates	*Malian NGOs:* ▪ Receive teacher training and provide pedagogical support to schools (visiting schools 2 times/ month) ▪ Work with communities to create schools ▪ Provide management training *Africare and NGOs:* ▪ Train APEs ▪ Organize literacy training in village ▪ Pay for teacher training ▪ Provide 2 books per student and 3 books per teacher for grades 1 & 2 ▪ Provide table-bancs ▪ Fund construction of block of 3 classrooms (provide materials for roof, windows, and doors) ▪ Train NGO field staff to give pedagogical support ▪ Organize inter-APE visits ▪ Give loans to APEs for income generation activities ▪ Organize education fair to build up	▪ Get involved in planning of community school project ▪ Test teacher applicants ▪ Provide teacher training (pre- and in-service) through the Academy of Education and the CAP ▪ Inspect schools (doesn't usually happen) ▪ Provide some textbooks ▪ Some communal authorities made donations of school supplies and textbooks ▪ Communal authorities have mediated conflicts between teachers, APEs and communities, renovated APE offices, and built a classroom block at one school	*Curriculum:* Govt. *Teacher training:* Africare and govt. *Teacher support/supervision:* Africare *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* Africare *School maintenance:* Community

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Have collective fields or conduct income generating activities for school costs in many villages ▪ Take decision whether or not to recruit annually ▪ One village had community tax levied on cotton to fund school	local support for schools ▪ Create informal network among APEs		

Country: MALI

Implementor: CARE (funding from USAID, CIDA via CARE Canada, NORAD via CARE Norway)

Type of intervention: Support APEs, construct school infrastructure (in Timbucktu only), and conduct in-service training of teachers

No. and location of schools: 18 community schools and 10 public schools in Macina (Segou region) and 28 in Timbucktu

Type of school management: School committee (elected)

Relation to public education system: Considered as private schools by Ministry of Education; integrated into public system

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Make bricks for 3 classrooms and 2 latrines ▪ Provide unskilled labor for construction ▪ Mobilize resources for school ▪ Create school action plans ▪ Establish income-generating activities for school	▪ Establish and train APEs ▪ Fund skilled labor for building classrooms and provide non-local materials ▪ Provide teaching and learning materials and student supplies ▪ Conduct sensitization campaign for girls' education ▪ Conduct adult literacy classes ▪ Monitor teacher performance ▪ Provide incentives to schools that enroll and retain largest numbers of students ▪ Provide prizes of school supplies to best students ▪ Provide motorcycles for 2 pedagogical counselors	▪ Provide teacher training ▪ Certify community schools ▪ Communes provide school supplies ▪ Communes pay one month of salary for teachers at one school ▪ Provide pedagogical support and supervision	*Curriculum:* Govt. *Teacher training:* Govt. *Teacher support/supervision:* Govt. *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* CARE *School maintenance:* Community

Country: MALI

Implementor: World Vision Mali (funding from Canada, New Zealand, USA, Switzerland, and Germany)

Type of intervention: Construct and equip primary schools, train of APEs

No. and location of schools: 120 schools constructed in the districts of Bla, San, Tominian, Koro, Gao, Menaka, Kidal

Type of school management: Community Management Committees (elected)

Relation to public education system: Supervised by public education officials

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Identify school site ▪ Network with government officials for school creation ▪ Contribute labor and finances to school construction and equipment ▪ Monitor construction process ▪ Network with government to receive teachers or recruit teachers ▪ Network with government and World Vision for refresher training for teachers	▪ Increase awareness on children's schooling ▪ Provide financial contributions to classroom construction ▪ Finance school equipment ▪ Monitor construction process ▪ Co-finance teachers' refresher training ▪ Provide teacher's desk and chair	▪ Monitor construction process ▪ Organize/facilitate teacher training	*Curriculum:* Govt. *Teacher training:* Govt., communities and World Vision *Teacher support/supervision:* Govt, communities and World Vision. *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* Govt. and World Vision *School maintenance*: Community and World Vision

Country: SOMALIA

Implementor: CARE (international funding from European Commission, UNHCR, and CARE Norge/Norwegian Ministry of Foreign Affairs)

Type of intervention: Expand educational opportunities for girls, working with existing schools that were destroyed

No. and location of schools: 19 in 3 western regions of Somaliland

Type of school management: Ministry of Education and community education committees (elected)

Relation to formal education system: Part of formal system

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Decide on rehabilitation priorities ▪ Select contractor ▪ Supervise construction ▪ Provide 5% of cost of rehabilitation and labor ▪ Collect fees to pay teacher ▪ Village authorities contribute money in some cases ▪ One community bought furniture for classroom ▪ One community contributes to teacher salaries and repaired furniture	▪ Have engineer survey school site ▪ Negotiate with Ministry to select project sites ▪ Fund rehabilitation of destroyed classrooms and school infrastructure ▪ Supply teaching kit of supplies to each class (exercise books, chalk, pencils, slates, blackboards etc.) ▪ Train teacher, provide support/supervision	▪ Ensure that schools are well-managed ▪ Provide policy guidelines ▪ Pay teachers a small incentive fee	*Curriculum:* UNICEF/UNESCO with the Ministry of Education *Teacher training:* UNICEF *Teacher support/supervision:* CARE *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* UNICEF/UNESCO and CARE *School maintenance:* CARE and communities

Country: SOUTH SUDAN

Implementor: CARE

Type of intervention: Increase participation rates through improving quality and delivery of basic education, capacity building of communities, rebuilding existing schools

No. and location of schools: 8 in Tambura country

Type of school management: Community Education Committee (reconstituted PTA)

Relation to formal education system: Considered public schools (though no functioning central government education)

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
• Construct and rehabilitate school buildings made out of local materials (provide labor and in-kind contributions) • Contribute land on which schools are located • Provide volunteer teachers • Sensitize community to benefits of education and particularly girls' education • Participate in administration and decision-making in school • Pay school fees to support teacher (most parents cannot afford to and do not)	• Provide construction materials and incentives to community • Train CEC members on getting involved in school activities • Train teachers to prepare work and lesson plans • Provide textbooks to pupils and teacher guides • Provide some supervision and monitoring to teachers • Construct/rehabilitate a teacher training center • Purchase training materials for teacher training course • Conduct baseline survey of primary education in Tambura • Provide uniforms for girls in several schools as enrollment incentive	• Develop standardized curriculum and syllabus • Supervise and inspect schools (doesn't happen regularly)	*Curriculum:* Govt. *Teacher training:* CARE *Teacher support/supervision:* CARE *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* CARE supplies textbooks; no teaching materials *School maintenance:* Community

Country: TANZANIA

Implementor: World Bank

Type of intervention: Raise enrollment and quality/learning outcomes of primary education, working with existing schools

No. and location of schools: No information available.

Type of school management: School committee (elected)

Relation to public education system: Public primary schools

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Decide by majority vote whether or not to participate in Education Fund program ▪ Establish school funding priorities ▪ Set the amount for parents to contribute to the CEF the first year ▪ Village council clears plan and meets with parents to review it and have them vote on their acceptance ▪ Parents make half the contributions and put in school's bank account ▪ Village council reviews implementation periodically ▪ Prepare 3-year plan ▪ Communities often do construction with money ▪ One school hired carpenter to build desks ▪ Give subsidies to parents who cannot pay through loans or labor	▪ Establish Community Education Fund pilot (matching grant program for communities) ▪ Finance costs for materials and training and some administrative costs in district ▪ Solicit plans from schools in second year for competitive funding	▪ Deposit a matching grant into account once community contributed ▪ Review implementation periodically ▪ Develop MOU with parents	*Curriculum:* Govt. *Teacher training:* Govt. *Teacher support/supervision:* Govt. *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* Govt. *School maintenance:* Community, World Bank

Country: TANZANIA

Implementor: ActionAid Tanzania (funded by DfID)

Type of intervention: Raise enrollment through creating new feeder schools

No. and location of schools: 33 in Markata

Type of school management: Management Committees

Relation to public education system: Feeder system for public primary schools

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Establish Management Committees ▪ Help to set criteria for selecting local facilitators ▪ Negotiate and draw contracts with selected facilitators ▪ Determine level of honoraria ▪ Contribute a portion of facilitator's honorarium in cash or in kind ▪ Supervise construction and maintenance of classrooms ▪ Supervise enrollment ▪ Maintain a relationship with the formal school ▪ Monitor attendance and quality of teaching and learning ▪ Erect permanent structures for eventual transformation into formal primary schools ▪ One community built houses for facilitators	▪ Help to set criteria for selection of local facilitators ▪ Pay 50 percent of facilitator's honorarium ▪ Contribute building materials that cannot be obtained locally (iron sheets and cement) ▪ Help communities to advocate with local govt. for a formal school ▪ Lobby village governments to exempt facilitators from public works ▪ Develop matching grant program in Makata where 50% of cost is provided if facilitator purchases a bicycle	▪ Provide curriculum ▪ Help to set criteria for selection of local facilitators ▪ Ward Education coordinators and headteachers guide facilitators on teaching ▪ Facilitators have access to the resources of teacher training colleges ▪ Provide joint examinations with formal primary schools under leadership of head teachers ▪ Accept students into formal schools ▪ District Council agreed to provide formal school in one case	*Curriculum:* Govt. *Teacher training:* Govt. *Teacher support/supervision:* Govt. *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* No information available. *School maintenance:* Community

Country: TOGO

Implementor: Aide et Action

Type of intervention: Start community-based schools to increase access to primary education

No. and location of schools: 24

Type of school management: School management committee (designated by village)

Relation to public education system: Now officially recognized as community schools and supposed to receive some government assistance, but not part of public system

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Contribute labor and local materials to building construction ▪ Undertake income generating activities for school ▪ Have authority over teachers	▪ Provide textbooks and school supplies for students ▪ Train teacher in active teaching methods ▪ Introduce teaching methods that begin instruction in local languages ▪ Help to construct buildings and provide equipment and furniture ▪ Give pedagogical support to teachers, send advisors to schools ▪ Start a teacher training center for active learning methods ▪ Start a local area committee of officials and interested parties that has contributed to schools	▪ Officially recognize community schools ▪ Produce official curriculum ▪ Provide supervisory visits ▪ Include teachers in teacher training ▪ Collect school statistics ▪ Provide exams ▪ Authorize community school teachers to take professional teaching exams ▪ Appoint a State-paid director/teacher to recognized and established schools with enough students ▪ Rent textbooks to students in recognized community schools ▪ Return half of educational tax to community school committees	*Curriculum:* Govt. *Teacher training:* No information available. *Teacher support/supervision:* No information available. *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* No information available. *School maintenance:* No information available.

Country: TOGO

Implementor: MEEM CARTO (funding from French Catholic mission/congregation)

Type of intervention: Support the development of new community schools to improve access to primary education

No. and location of schools: 14 in the Savannah region

Type of school management: School management committees or students' parents committees (designated by village)

Relation to public education system: Now officially recognized as community schools and supposed to receive some government assistance, but not part of public system

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Build classes out of local materials ▪ Parents pay supplemental payment to teachers ▪ Provide land for teachers to farm and usually housing ▪ Undertake income generating activities for school ▪ Have authority over teachers	▪ Provide textbooks for students ▪ Help to construct buildings and provide equipment and furniture ▪ Donate permanent classroom structures ▪ Recruit teachers from a larger area than just the village where the school is located ▪ Provide training and in-service training for teachers ▪ Provide pedagogical support to teachers ▪ Pay teachers	▪ Officially recognize community schools ▪ Produce official curriculum ▪ Provide supervisory visits ▪ Include teachers in teacher training ▪ Collect school statistics ▪ Provide exams ▪ Authorize community school teachers to take professional teaching exams ▪ Appoint a State-paid director/teacher to recognized and established schools with enough students ▪ Rent textbooks to students in recognized community schools ▪ Return half of educational tax to community school committees	*Curriculum:* Govt. *Teacher training:* No information available. *Teacher support/supervision:* No information available. *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* No information available. *School maintenance:* No information available.

Country: UGANDA

Implementor: Save the Children (CHANCE project) (funding from Anonymous Family Foundation)

Type of intervention: Provide primary education for hard-to-reach groups through starting new schools and re-empowering communities

No. and location of schools: 59 in Nakasongola District

Type of school management: School management committee (elected)

Relation to public education system: Not yet part of public system, but district officials from MOE have agreed to assume recurrent costs making them public schools

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Construct building with local materials ▪ Select teachers ▪ Determine times of year when children are less busy and describe migration patterns ▪ Monitor teachers and pupils performance and attendance ▪ Select children to participate ▪ Start additional classes next to project classes (built classrooms and pay teachers small fee for these classes)	▪ Provide learning materials, notebooks, pencils, a blackboard and chalk ▪ Visit classes regularly ▪ Train teachers ▪ Provide follow-up trainings for teachers monthly ▪ Loan bicycles to cluster leaders who support other teachers ▪ Plan to train SMCs ▪ Make a small contribution to salary of a District Inspector of schools ▪ Develop proposal with district that was funded centrally for in-service training of untrained teachers in district; contribute financially to training so CHANCE facilitators could participate ▪ Continue to coordinate and advocate to government on behalf of communities	▪ Provide end-of-year exams ▪ Provide District Inspection officer as point person for CHANCE schools ▪ Invite SCF staff to planning sessions and trainings ▪ Train CHANCE teachers along with other untrained teachers in district	*Curriculum:* Govt. *Teacher training:* Save, government *Teacher support/supervision:* Save *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* Save and teachers *School maintenance:* Community

Country: UGANDA

Implementor: ActionAid Uganda (funding from DfID and the UK National Lottery Charities Board)

Type of intervention: Increase access to basic education for 8-16 year olds through creating centers and strengthening community participation in school governance

No. and location of schools: 131 in Mubende District

Type of school management: Center management committees

Relation to public education system: Not part of public system, but plans are for the District to turn some centers into public primary schools

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Provide local materials and labor for building construction ▪ Help select teachers ▪ Decide on schedule and calendar for classes ▪ Monitor activities at the centers	▪ Provide management skills training for parents and parish, sub-county and district stakeholders ▪ Identify teacher candidates and train instructors ▪ Monitor and support instructors ▪ Monitor project efforts ▪ Collect project and community data to be used by implementors and the district	▪ Provide office space at the district level ▪ Turn some centers into formal primary schools	*Curriculum:* ActionAid *Teacher training:* ActionAid *Teacher support/supervision:* ActionAid *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* ActionAid *School maintenance:* No information available.

Country: ZAMBIA

Implementor: CARE (financed by Canada International Development Agency)

Type of intervention: Strengthen institutional capacity of local NGOs to address educational needs of disadvantaged children (especially girls) by creating new schools

No. and location of schools: 4 in peri-urban communities outside Lusaka

Type of school management: Parents' Committee

Relation to public education system: Part of public school system

Community roles	NGO support	Government support	Providers of key educational services
▪ Identify school site ▪ Identify potential teachers ▪ Recruit teachers ▪ Build initial school structure, often "inappropriate" ▪ Collect school fees ▪ Dispense salaries ▪ Partially pay teacher salary (parents pay teachers who teach a second class) ▪ Provide management oversight	▪ Recruit teachers ▪ Develop MOU with government to formulate policy on community schools and determine roles and responsibilities ▪ Pay teacher salaries ▪ Provide textbooks in 4 subjects ▪ Develop special assessment tests for end of each term ▪ Provide table for teachers ▪ Develop Zambia Community School Secretariat (ZCSS) to legitimize and promote community schools at MOE	▪ Provide resource person for teacher training workshops ▪ Accredit schools recommended by ZCSS ▪ Allocate financial resources and educational materials to selected community schools under BESSIP ▪ Provide sponsorship to identified numbers of orphans and vulnerable children in community schools under the European Union Zambia Education Capacity Building (ZECAB) program ▪ Assist communities to build community schools under ZAMSIF (formally Micro Projects)	*Curriculum:* Govt., adapted by CARE into 4 years *Teacher training:* Govt./CARE *Teacher support/supervision:* No real support/supervision; working with MOE to correct this *Supply of textbooks and teaching material:* CARE supplies textbooks; no teaching materials unless constructed by teacher *School maintenance:* Community

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